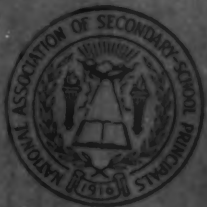


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April 1961

THE
Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION
OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



PROCEEDINGS OF THE 45th
ANNUAL CONVENTION

Cobo Hall, Detroit, Michigan

February 11-15, 1961

Theme: INDIVIDUAL COMPETENCE
AND THE NATIONAL WELFARE

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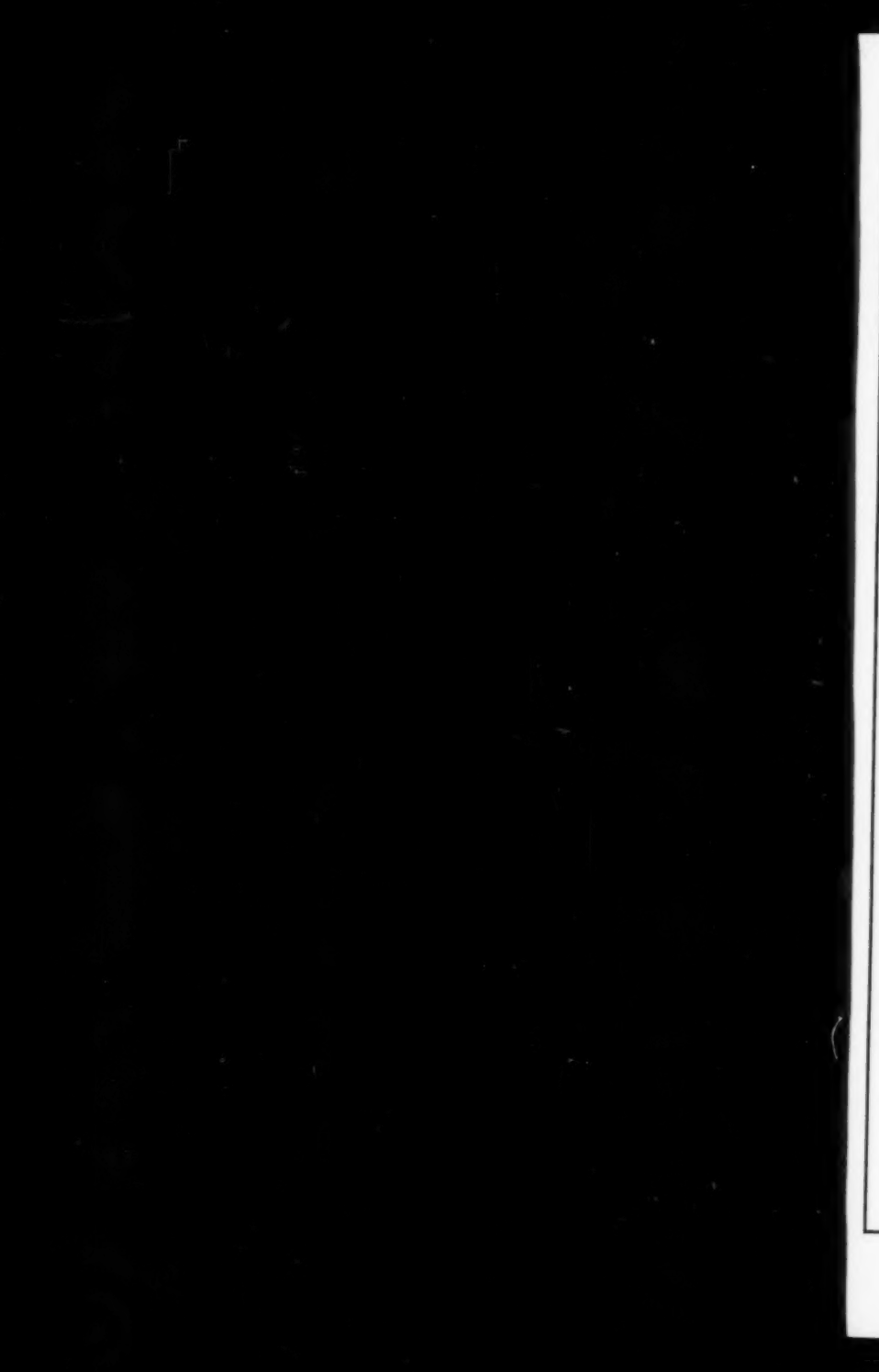
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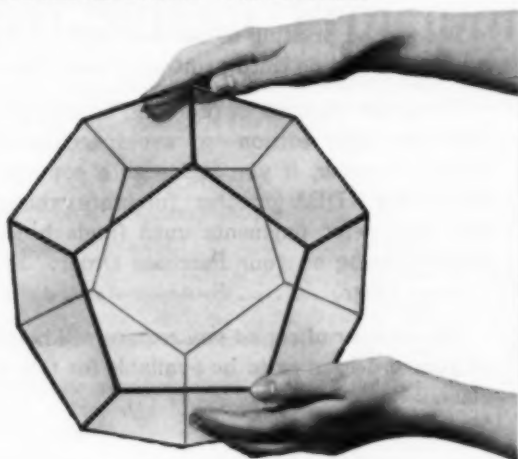
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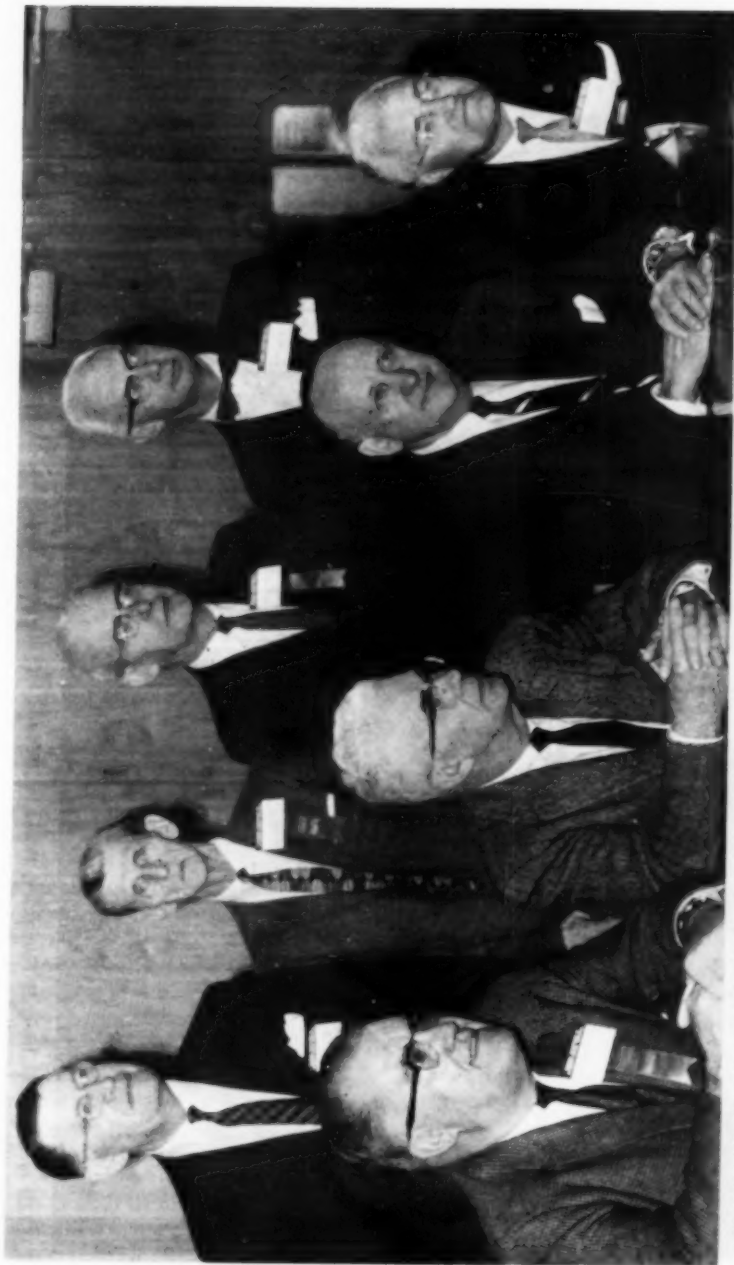
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NASSP EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE: *Seated, left to right*—John M. Sexton, member; Eugene S. Thomas, First Vice President; James E. Logsdon, President, 1961-62; Calloway Taulbee, Second Vice President; *Standing, left to right*—Ellsworth Tompkins, Executive Secretary; and G. Mason Hall, Samuel M. Graves, and Robert L. Foose, members.



Left to right—Dr. James E. Nancarrow, President, 1960-61; Dr. Ellsworth Tompkins, Executive Secretary; and Dr. S. M. Brownell, Superintendent, Detroit Public Schools.

Proceedings of the
Forty-fifth Annual Convention
of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Cobo Hall, Detroit, Michigan

February 11-15, 1961

Theme: Individual Competence and the National Welfare

DUE to the large number of participants on the program of the 45th Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, this issue of THE BULLETIN contains only a summary of the addresses and papers presented. These proceedings are divided into four parts: Part I, Discussion Groups; Part II, General Sessions; Part III, National Advisory Council Meeting; and Part IV, Business Meeting.

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals is a department of secondary-school administration and supervision of the National Education Association of the United States. It is the professional organization for all who are interested and engaged in the administration of secondary education. It sponsors the *National Honor Society*, the *National Junior Honor Society*, and the *National Association of Student Councils* (NASC). It conducts research studies in secondary education and has many services for members. The Association publishes THE BULLETIN monthly, nine times during the school year (September to May); STUDENT LIFE monthly, eight times during the school year (October to May); the NASSP NEWS LETTER, a 4-page publication issued four times a year to members of the National Advisory Council and other Association leaders; the NASSP SPOTLIGHT, a 4-page publication issued five times a year to NASSP members; and the NASC HIGHLIGHTS, a 4-page publication issued four times a year to NASC members. Membership is eight dollars per year, payable to the NASSP, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

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Part I

Discussion Groups

ASSESSING THE CONANT REPORT ON THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

CHAIRMAN: *Howard Schofstal*, Principal, Junior High School, Annapolis, Maryland

INTERROGATORS:

Robert H. Bender, Principal, Washington Junior High School, Toledo, Ohio

Galen Saylor, Chairman, Department of Secondary Education, Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska

Summary of the presentation made by LEE WILBORN

IN Dr. Conant's first report, *The American High School Today*, he made numerous references to the junior high school. In all probability, it was his original study that focused his attention on the junior high-school program. In Section II, "A Unique Feature: The Comprehensive High School," of the first report, Dr. Conant says that the junior high school of three years in many school systems plays an intermediary role between the elementary school and the senior high school. In several other sections of his report and in some of his writing since the original study, he has made reference to the junior high school and some of its unique features.

At the 1960 meeting of NASSP, Dr. Conant reported that he had visited 125 junior high schools in 60 cities of 17 states. In these visits he found great variety in organization for grades 7 and 8. For example, algebra and foreign language are often introduced in grade 8. Science in these grades is generally given as general science; however, some schools are now offering biology in grade 8. He found that ability grouping was wide spread. Block time in grade 7 is a common practice. A great variety in length of the school day was found, varying from 5 to 7 hours. Homework required one and one-half to 8 hours and sometimes as many as 9

Lee Wilborn is Assistant Commissioner for Instruction, Texas Education Agency, Austin, Texas.

hours. In many schools, 40 per cent of the ninth-grade enrollment was reading at sixth-grade level.

The question of education for junior high-school age children has been one on which complete agreement is not found. Some junior high-school organizations have been based on adolescent psychology, while others have been founded on a strong academic subject-matter program. Conditions and patterns of behavior have influenced the program since its beginning.

With the necessity of early introduction to secondary education no longer necessary after 1930, there were other justifications for the junior high school and it has continued to grow in strength through the years. Many variations in the organization pattern have been due to local conditions such as housing facilities, enrollment pressure, and financial resources.

Dr. Conant's report points to three principal elements of great importance in the junior high-school program: (1) a professional staff prepared to work with pupils of this age; (2) the quality of teaching at this very important age; and (3) course content supported by carefully chosen textbooks. Dr. Conant clarifies his understanding of a setting for the program by giving careful study to the building in which the program is housed, to instructional facilities, textbooks, student activities, teacher preparation, and to the importance of considering the pupil as an individual.

As a group, the 12 to 15 year age was recognized as representing (1) a wide range of individual differences in interest and capacity, a range that has a tendency under favorable conditions to increase constantly; and (2) a common concern with passing from one phase of life or orientation to another. In addition to group differences, there are, for each individual, different rates of growth in his social, physical, emotional, and mental development. He may be a child emotionally, although mature physically and mentally. Dr. Conant has made it clear that in planning for junior high-school pupils, many problems are involved. Their interests, their needs, and their emotional pattern are revealed through a group of well-recognized traits:

They want sufficient knowledge and skills which permit them to proceed on their own.

They desire many outlets for expressing their ideas and feelings.

They are concerned about their relationship with other people.

They show increased interest about themselves and their environment.

They have to adjust to rapid and profound body changes.

They try to achieve independence and, at the same time, maintain security.

They strive for personal values in their social group.

They want to participate as a responsible member of larger social groups.

No doubt Dr. Conant had these characteristics in mind as he wrote the recommendations following his important phase of this study. He has indicated further that, to provide an environment conducive to learning,

the school planner must understand the philosophy of the student, the program of work, and the problems and concerns of the group he serves. These factors will vary from school to school, and from location to location; therefore, no predetermined plan for an ideal school has yet been presented. Each situation calls for individual study and analysis.

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT D. LELAND

IN *Education in the Junior High School Years*, Dr. James B. Conant has again performed a genuine service to American public schools by presenting recommendations that are largely reasonable and which many educators and communities can accept as broad general recommendations. Obviously there are many controversial topics embodied in his recommendations, but the impression gained among educators on the West Coast is that most good schools are doing many of the things recommended and that there is much honest appraisal going on in light of the report.

Regarding some of the specific recommendations from the viewpoint of one school, John Muir Junior High School, we have long included all the required subjects outlined in the list of recommended subjects, have had developmental and remedial reading classes for grades seven and eight, and have continued instruction in the other fundamental skills as suggested in Recommendation No. 3. Dr. Conant in Recommendation No. 4 indicates "group activities which have particular relevance for early adolescents should be part of the total program." This basic concept is generally acceptable, but what Dr. Conant did not stress is the need for balance between the activities program and the academic program. While he did question the place of interscholastic athletics in junior high school, another problem, that of the junior high schools imitating the high schools by doing everything from extensive drama to producing large annuals, is a very real one. The administration and faculty in our school works continuously to keep the activity program in balance and in keeping with the age level.

Regarding block-time teaching, we have for many years had the two-period English-social studies block and have found it to be very successful. Sixth-grade orientation and seventh-grade orientation units, as well as tenth-grade registration, are our most effective means of supplementing the smooth transition of which Dr. Conant speaks. The case for flexible scheduling is presented in the report. The six-period day does restrict some scheduling, but we have found ways of providing more flexibility, grouping, and meeting individual needs of students (three of Dr. Conant's

Robert D. Leland is Principal of the John Muir Junior High School, 1111 North Kenneth Road, Burbank, California.

recommendations) by block scheduling and a specific grouping organization based on units of four class sections.

The program developed in the Burbank schools and at John Muir Junior High School differs with Dr. Conant in the introduction of algebra at the eighth-grade level. Our district has studied this problem and feel that more effective use of such material as the Mathematics School Study Group from Yale for top eighth-grade pupils is more meaningful than earlier introduction of algebra. In guidance and testing, we believe the full-time counselor-pupil ratio of 1 to 250 as a practical standard, but we have developed a teacher centered guidance program with specialists to help supplement their program.

While Dr. Conant speaks of smaller class sizes and the need for minimum special facilities, he again appears to have oversimplified the issues at hand. Recent studies have shown that some subject areas can be as effectively taught with large classes as with small. We are working toward larger classes in typing and general music in order to reduce the class size in such areas as English and mathematics.

Dr. Conant's one omission, his apparent lack of concern with the quality of experience in the classroom, tends to be corrected by his final recommendation of the need for curricular leadership on the part of the individual school principals. Block-time schedules, grouping, promotional policies, *etc.* are all necessary and important elements in the total function of a school, but the skill and leadership provided by the principal to develop genuine concern in the entire faculty for quality instruction is the key to providing quality education in our junior high schools.

Summary of the presentation made by DONALD V. GROTE

THE major weakness of Dr. Conant's report is the absence of statements of an educational philosophy that justify his conclusions and the absence of a listing of the special functions of the junior high school that could be used as criteria to be related to his recommendations. Dr. Conant's name by itself does not make any recommendation authoritative. What are these purposes of junior high-school education? We cannot state the purposes without first possessing or formulating a philosophy for junior high-school education. Only after an adoption or formation of a philosophy for an understanding of the purposes and functions of a junior high school can we then set forth our criteria for evaluation of the program. We can then, through the process of evaluation, determine whether we have a high quality program. We cannot determine the quality of our junior high-school program until we fully evaluate the progress of the

Donald V. Grote is Principal of Skiles Junior High School, Evanston, Illinois. Enrollment, 630.

pupils in terms of our goals. Thus, statements of a philosophy and the special functions of the junior high school are necessary as criteria for determining the quality of a junior high-school's requirements or recommendations regarding practice. Each recommendation and each expression of opinion should be judged by reference to criteria that are related to the philosophy and the special functions set forth for the junior high school.

The junior high schools need leadership in the development and the adoption of an over-all philosophy and a set of goals on which to build a program that meets the basic needs of the early adolescent in our society.

We must reach general agreement as to the functions and purposes of the junior high school. We must then dedicate our efforts to developing a program based upon these broad purposes and discontinue this haphazard approach of yielding to whims, pressures and special interests rather than using a frame of reference based upon the real needs, interests, and concerns of this age group, including the impact of society upon them. The philosophy and the goals that are either developed or adopted by a junior high-school administrator and his staff determine the basic organization and content of the program.

The report places undue emphasis on several phases of the junior high school that are not basic to the ultimate success of junior high-school pupils while others of importance are hardly mentioned. The "fourteen plus" recommendations do reflect established practices in a number of successful junior high schools. These recommendations will help communities seeking help in the establishment of a junior high school or striving for improvement of the educational program in their junior high schools.

There is actually nothing new or radical in Dr. Conant's report. Basically it puts a stamp of approval on the school which has been developed to meet the needs of a unique group of boys and girls. However, the report will provide additional status to the junior high school as it is rapidly becoming established as an essential and respectable unit in the organizational pattern of public education.

Dr. Conant admits that his recommendations are purposely conservative. However, addressed as it is "to school board members and other citizens interested in public education," it should, in addition to giving full sanction to junior high schools, arouse lay interest and provide practical suggestions for bringing about improvements that are needed. Several of his recommendations will likely require additional expenditure of funds. Guidance personnel, foreign language teachers in grades seven and eight, 50 professionals for 1,000 pupils, a full-time assistant principal for every 750 pupils, and a clerk or secretary for every 250 pupils—these cost money. The prestige of Dr. Conant will and should have great weight. As the report causes increased public interest in junior high schools, we will have challenges and opportunities that we have never

had before in putting into practice the adopted changes and recommendations.

Junior high-school educators owe Dr. Conant a large debt of gratitude. His contribution was needed and will help fill a vacuum. One can count on the fingers of one hand all of the major publications on the junior high school published within the last ten years. One does not need to employ very many additional fingers to count the nationally known authorities on junior high-school education. Yes, even though we are rather critical of some parts of the report, we are aware of its over-all contribution to the development of a good program of education for junior high schools.

HOW SUPERVISE INSTRUCTION IN THE LARGE URBAN SECONDARY SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *R. B. Norman*, Principal, High School, Amarillo, Texas

INTERROGATORS:

Bertram H. Holland, Headmaster, High School, Brookline, Massachusetts

Robert H. Kennedy, Assistant Principal, Senior High School, Mansfield, Ohio

Leonard A. Szudy, Principal, Central High School, West Allis, Wisconsin

Summary of the presentation made by R. BRUCE ALLINGHAM

THE principal, as chief administrative officer of his school, is considered to be responsible for all the outcomes of the educational program of his school, within the scope of operation delineated by the superintendent and the board of education. With this responsibility he should be given the power and authority to function in a strong leadership role always, of course, with an awareness of the policies and the philosophy of the Board of Education and the superintendent. It should be clear at all times that there are definite lines of authority to be observed in the handling of all matters pertaining to the operation of the school, with the flow of communication channeled from the board, through the superintendent to the principal and thence through administrative assistants and department chairmen to the classroom teachers and supportive personnel.

R. Bruce Allingham is Principal of York Community High School, Elmhurst, Illinois.

In the writer's view, the high-school principal is the curriculum leader of his school, and his chief responsibility is that of up-grading the instructional program in all areas. To fulfill this role he cannot be simply a manipulator of schedules, a checker of attendance, a ticket seller, and the like. These more routine duties must be assigned to competent administrative assistants so that he may have the time to function in his true role. Thus, in a multiple-school system, for instance, highly skilled supervisors in various areas of the curriculum become consultants to the principal and his department chairmen and classroom teachers as they proceed with analysis, evaluation, and continuing revision of the instructional program.

To provide time and opportunity for the principal to function in his true role as instructional leader, adequate assistance must be available to the principal in the handling of the manifold duties of administration. Some of these duties, for whose execution the principal must take ultimate responsibility, include the following:

1. Assignment and supervision of all teachers, substitutes, and cadet teachers
2. Supervision of grade reports and communication with parents
3. Supervision of the total co-curricular program of the school and the use of school facilities for community and adult evening-school programs
4. Handling of pupil behavior problems
5. The total counseling program
6. Supervision of the handling of all money such as accrues from the cafeteria service, all phases of the co-curricular program, pupil insurance, the school newspaper and yearbook, and the like (Careful accounting of all funds is a "must" in efficient administration.)
7. Supervision of attendance and tardiness
8. Assignment of all pupils to classes according to the ability grouping employed.

In a large high school, adequate communication is a most difficult, but extremely necessary, objective. It is mandatory that the principal develop an organizational structure within his school which will bring him frequently face to face with his professional staff. The writer has made it a practice to establish an Administrative Council composed of assistants, deans, and department chairmen, to work closely with him as an administrative policy-making board. Meeting weekly, the Council, with the principal as chairman, constantly review policies, procedures, and practices of the school, and, when revisions and changes are to be made, those members of the "team" under whose jurisdiction the action will fall assume responsibility for implementation.

Then, the writer has established a Staff Planning Committee of about 35, composed of volunteer classroom teacher representatives of various departments, who agree to meet with the principal semi-monthly for two-hour discussion sessions to exchange feelings and ideas about anything that has to do with the operation of the school; personal theories, complaints, constructive criticism, and introduction of new ideas are welcome,

and "no holds barred." Teachers feel their ideas are welcome and that they "belong to the team." Finally, regular, well-planned monthly faculty meetings of professional importance to the entire staff will complete the pattern of communication so essential in a large high school.

Consideration should be given, in a review of this kind, to the need for the principal to spearhead the day-by-day and week-by-week upgrading of instruction by his work personally with all departments, with the close collaboration of the respective chairmen. He is primarily an educator, secondarily a "manipulator"; and the faculty will come to recognize this and respect such an emphasis.

Summary of the presentation made by FRANCIS J. GRIFFITH

THE eighty-seven academic and vocational high schools of New York City are large by any standards. The smallest has a population of about 1,000 and the largest a population of about 6,500. How can the principals of schools as large as these help their staffs to grow professionally? What practices do they use to insure skillful teaching?

The best single means of improving instruction is the observation of lessons. Principals are required to visit for a full period each semester all probationary teachers and regular substitutes. They must also observe regularly appointed teachers who are notably weak. Each visit is followed by an individual conference and a written report of commendable procedures, matters needing improvement, and recommendations.

Most principals exceed these minimal requirements. They usually visit all their teachers several times during the course of each year although not always for a full period. Through these brief informal visits, which are generally not followed by a formal conference or report, principals get to know their teachers, their customary methods of teaching, and their strengths and limitations.

Some principals make the department their unit of supervision. Together with the department chairman, they observe all teachers in a department, inspect department records and supplies, and discuss at a department meeting their impressions and suggestions.

Because the pressure of administrative duties prevents principals from spending as much time on supervision as they would like to spend, they rely to a great extent on department chairmen for the improvement of instruction.

The departmental organization of New York's high schools is *sui generis*. In other school systems chairmen are selected on the basis of seniority. They perform clerical and administrative chores. They are not responsible for the in-service growth of teachers or for training them

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in the special methods of their subject; they have no responsibility for the revision of courses of study or for the construction and rating of examinations. New York City chairmen have these responsibilities. They reach their position by passing a rigorous competitive examination which includes written tests of scholarship in education and a subject area, an interview test, performance tests in supervision and classroom teaching, and sometimes in special fields such as art and music. Those who pass this severe screening process are, with few exceptions, capable of exercising educational leadership of a high order.

A chairman is a principal's right arm. He has teaching, administrative, and supervisory duties. His teaching load is reduced to allow him time for his most important responsibility, the improvement of instruction. He observes substitutes and probationary teachers at least three times each semester, regularly appointed teachers at least once a year, and problem teachers as often as required. He confers with his teachers after each observation and writes a report of his findings and recommendations. He conducts monthly department meetings on problems related to the teaching of his subject. Copies of all observation reports and minutes of department meetings are transmitted to the principal who is thereby kept aware of his school's progress. The chairman also serves as a member of the principal's cabinet which meets monthly to discuss policies and coordinate procedures.

The chairman's supervision supplements the principal's and makes possible the excellence of classroom instruction in our large metropolitan high schools.

Do administrative pressures hinder a principal from visiting classes? They do. That is why highly trained chairmen are necessary. A departmental organization does not exempt a principal from performing his primary job—it makes it possible for him to do it with greater efficiency.

Summary of the presentation made by ANDY TOLSON

THIS matter of the principal's role of supervisor of instruction has and will continue to raise eyebrows amongst the thousands of school men who are most concerned, the secondary-school principals. There seems to be no agreed percentage of time to be allotted; no agreed procedure to follow; and no agreed criteria for what is good supervision. In short, this is somewhat of a grab on and do the best job possible under the conditions prevailing.

For a description of practice in an Arizona high school, this can be done by using as example, Tucson High School, a *four-year* secondary

Andy Tolson is Principal of Tucson High School, 400 N. Second Avenue, Tucson, Arizona. Enrollment, 2,500.

school with an enrollment of 2,500, a faculty of 126, and an administrative staff of 5. The student body is composed of 60 per cent Anglo, 30 per cent Spanish-American, and the remaining 10 per cent are Negroes, Chinese, and Indians. Three buildings and a stadium make up the facilities of this downtown high school.

The following procedures of instructional supervision by the principal are not new but seem to be educationally sound: (1) faculty meetings; (2) departmental meetings; (3) in-service training programs; (4) class visitations; (5) teacher-principal conferences; (6) providing instructional materials; (7) assignment of faculty members to course of study revision committees; and (8) assignment of faculty members to textbook selection committees.

Some of these might seem to be a little far fetched, but all can be part of a good supervision program.

Class visitation is the most common method of supervision. However, this is limited because of the many time consuming duties of the principal. If the principal of Tucson High School visited each of the 126 teachers for a one-hour period, revisited some, and then had conferences where needed, it would take about one fourth the school year, not to mention the many hours spent in department and in-service training meetings. Even with four very fine and dependable assistant administrators assuming many duties, the above program cannot be followed. It is interesting to note that 35 per cent of the teaching staff attended teachers colleges in Arizona, 40 per cent in the Middle West, 5 per cent in the South, 11 per cent in the East, and about 8 per cent in the Far West. Methods of teaching are varied but in most instances are sound. Even so there is need for a detailed in-service program for new teachers.

All new teachers are visited four times during the first year. The principal visits twice and the assistant principal in charge of student personnel visits twice. Conferences are held with the new teachers, commendations and recommendations are made, and if necessary follow-up visitations.

Tenure teachers sometimes request visitations, but in most part supervision of the older teachers is done through some of the other methods suggested.

Mention must be made of the important part played by department chairmen in instructional supervision. Good strong leadership by chairmen can take much of the detail from the supervision program of the principal.

There is much to be gained by a good instructional supervision program, but time will not permit the principal to do it all; he must resort to the personnel and resources that surround him.

THE DAILY SCHEDULE—SHORTER PERIODS, LONGER PERIODS, VARIABLE PERIODS, OR WHAT?

CHAIRMAN: A. W. Sturges, Assistant Professor of Education, Winona State College, Winona, Minnesota

INTERROGATORS:

E. Harry Boothby, Principal, Senior High School, Portsmouth, New Hampshire

Matt O. Hanhila, Principal, Carl Hayden High School, Phoenix, Arizona

Glenn A. Rich, Director, Division of Elementary and Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by PAIGE S. HARPER

SINCE the early 1930's the length of the class periods of junior high schools of Florida have been limited by State Board regulations. These regulations in effect put a fifty-five-minute minimum on class periods in grades nine through twelve. They were put into effect because of certain Federal governmental regulations concerning vocational units. Most junior high-school principals, faced with a fifty-five-minute class period in the ninth grade, also chose a period of the same length for their seventh and eighth grades. This coupled with the six-period day for students became the pattern.

Recently, however, steps have been taken in some Florida counties to change the length and number of periods in order to allow for more flexibility in the school program. For example, in Sarasota County the junior high schools operate with seven pupil periods of fifty minutes each. This allows for a remarkably flexible program, however, many problems are created. In the following three paragraphs, an attempt will be made to deal with these problems.

Practically all students take seven different classes. There are no study halls as such. Almost all students use this extra class to enrich their programs, although it is possible for a student through special permission to take two classes of shop, band, or some other enrichment daily.

Sarasota schools also offer a three-period block of time. For example, two blocks are offered in the ninth grade consisting of English and foreign language and English and social studies. This allows study time for some students while high achievers are permitted to break the block to take a seventh class.

To accomplish this seven-pupil-period day requires a different concept of teacher allocation and assignment. Teachers teach six classes instead of the traditional five; however, their pupil loads have not increased because the school board has seen fit to allocate each school one-sixth more teach-

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ers. Hence each class size is small enough to create the same pupil load for a teacher teaching six classes as a teacher who had previously taught but five classes of the larger size. Incidentally, the pupil load for Sarasota teachers is about one hundred fifty.

Dade County has taken a somewhat different approach toward accomplishing nearly the same goal. Although the junior high schools still operate on fifty-five-minute periods, they extend their school day one period in the morning or afternoon or both. During the extended periods they offer required classes. They then are able to offer their entire curriculum to their students during the regular school day. The students are required to take a seventh class.

Dade County also has a two-hour block of time for most seventh-grade students and for some eighth-grade students. This block is always English and social studies.

It has been said that to assimilate completely a new educational idea into all the schools in the country will take fifty years. In Florida it will not take fifty years, but it is taking some time to move out of the strait jacket of the six-period day. Some counties are experimenting with the length of periods for different subjects and the length of periods for different grades. Others are experimenting with the number of times a week different subjects should meet. Still other counties are expanding summer school programs to include junior high-school pupils.

Obviously there is a need to provide a change in the length and number of class periods in the junior high school. This must be done to provide the desired flexible program. Steps are being taken in Florida to accomplish this end. How long it will take to assimilate this flexible program into all of our schools remains to be seen. However, as long as progress takes place in an orderly and proper manner, we shall always be proud of the results.

Summary of the presentation made by DALE PARNELL

Paper presented by Erwin Juilfs, Principal, Jefferson Junior High School, Eugene, Oregon.

THINGS are moving in Oregon toward fulfilling some ideas of the Trump study, *Images of the Future*. Bend Senior High School in Bend, Oregon, has tried putting their students more on their own. Teachers have been taken out of the study halls and assigned to new classes. A student may select one of three places in which to study: (1) The cafeteria study hall is unsupervised where students may talk and study together. (2) The quiet study hall is also unsupervised but located in a vacant classroom. This one is for quiet individual study. (3) The library is where a full-time librarian is on hand to aid students in research projects.

Dale Parnell is Principal of Springfield Senior High School, Springfield, Oregon.

ects. The principal, Bill Edwards, reports that students are adjusting well to the program. Students have accepted the responsibility of managing their own study time and are ready to accept more freedom in their scheduling. One full teacher is gained by not having to assign teachers to study hall duty.

The next step Edwards has taken calls for some moderate changes in class scheduling. (1) Approximately 160 senior students will meet for three one-hour lecture sessions a week on American Problems. At some other time during the week, these students will meet in groups of 7 or 8 for one-hour small-group seminars with their teacher. The fifth day of the week is devoted to individual study and research. The teacher load calls for the three large group lectures per week plus the meetings of some 20 seminar groups. The advantages of this type of scheduling are as follows: (a) utilization of outside speakers and resource people, for guest speakers can address all 160 students in one hour; (b) free exchange of ideas between individual instructor and small-group seminar meetings; (c) opportunity for the student to work in research projects during the normal school day; (d) opportunity for the instructor to prepare adequately for lecture presentations. (2) Approximately 90 of the more capable United States history students are following this same program as outlined above. (3) Honor physics and chemistry classes meet for two 55-minute lecture sessions each week, in two one-and-one-half-hour lab sessions. This has been accomplished by scheduling these classes just before or just after lunch hour. The lab session takes half the lunch hour plus the regular period. The fifth day of the week is open for individual projects in study or for meetings with the instructor. The main advantage of this program allows for more lab time and for more detailed experiments. This seems to be a rather common pattern in the larger high schools. (4) The eleventh- and twelfth-grade homemaking students follow the same plan as the Honor chemistry and physics classes. This plan calls for two 55-minute lecture sessions and two one-and-one-half-hour sessions per week. (5) Advanced classes in metal shop and woodworking would meet two hours daily. This allows more time for work on individual projects. Edwards notes that plans are now being considered for the creation of other large-group class sessions now meeting once or twice a week followed by small-group sessions, which will entail a team-teach approach.

Principal George Erickson of Beaverton High School, Beaverton, Oregon reports on an extended day program at Beaverton High School that originated, due to overcrowded conditions, but was so well liked by faculty and administration that they have remained on the program. Freshman and sophomore students begin the normal school day at 8:00 A.M. and are through at 2:30 with six 55-minute periods. Juniors and seniors begin at 9:00 A.M. and are through at 3:30 also with six periods. The advantage of this plan allows some students to add a seventh period to the daily schedule if they so desire, it also gives some students an

opportunity for extra lab periods, science classes, or possibly another vocational type classes.

Tuition free summer schools are becoming more common in our state with students doing work primarily in three areas: (1) *enrichment*, where students might work on special science projects, in the language laboratories on special foreign language development programs, or develop some conversational work in a new foreign language, and generally for students to explore new areas or go into the complexities of one subject on an individual basis; (2) *skill building*, where students work on development of various skills, such as driver training, speed reading, typing, shop work, art classes, and even physical education; (3) *remedial work* is given whereby some students may work on remedial reading, or making up credits for courses failed, or working on weakness in a given area, such as factoring in algebra, writing skill in English, or whatever may be the student weaknesses. For the most part these summer schools are not credit granting situations except in the case of make-up, operating on strictly a voluntary nature. The teachers teaching in the summer schools are often on extended contracts, above and beyond the usual contract. They teach summer school classes in the morning and work on curriculum development work in the afternoons. This program is showing great promise in Oregon and looms to be adopted more widely. Students, parents, and teachers in a community where this type of summer school has been tried overwhelmingly give their approval.

In talking with many of the secondary-school principals of Oregon, it would seem they are generally asking these questions. (1) How can we provide in our comprehensive secondary school, the *proper amount of time* for each subject we offer? It is realized that some subjects demand more homework than others; some subjects demand more lab work than others; by their very nature not all subjects need the same amount of class time daily. How can this best be done within the existing structure of the comprehensive high school? We must keep also in mind that we are not dealing with only the college bound student, nor are we dealing with mature individuals. (2) Rather than a longer school year, how can we make better use of the time that we have? A recent study by the secondary-school principals of this state revealed that class-room interruptions in the high schools of Oregon are of serious consequence to the quantity and quality of education. This study had no quarrel with any particular activity, group, individual, or meeting, but addressed itself to the proposition of having both a solid 180 classroom days in the school year with a minimum of daily interruptions and loss of school time by students. It was the position of this committee that the general public, students, and sometimes administration and teachers have not held the time allotted for classroom instruction in high enough esteem. The public demands the secondary school to do a bigger and better job, but, when it come right down to cases, it is questionable if the public really wants the young people in school long enough and consistently enough to pro-

vide a continuity of time for quality education. This committee recommended no lengthening of school time, but recommended more efficient use of the present time.

Many high schools of Oregon have had seven- or eight-period days long before Dr. Conant made his recommendations. However, for the most part, these have not been variable periods and, therefore, have meant only that students take more subjects or are provided more study time during the normal school day. This procedure is open to discussion, for the consensus of principals in Oregon seems to be not how to make a longer school day, nor how to make a longer school year, but how to make variable periods within the confines of the school day which we are now assigned.

Summary of the presentation made by E. EUGENE OLIVER

ANY change in an existing schedule requires courage and the willingness to meet new problems and to spend time and energy in resolving them. Certainly it requires the willingness of teachers to experiment, and the careful consideration of objectives and of evaluation procedures.

A most encouraging development in secondary education is the willingness of an increasing number of schools to question the traditional schedule, with the intention of making time the servant of learning activities rather than their master. A discouraging aspect of these experiments is the tendency to measure the results by subjective methods alone.

Two notable exceptions to this tendency have occurred at Newton, Massachusetts, and in Jefferson County, Colorado. At Newton High School, the schedule variations have included a planned concentration of similar regularly scheduled classes during certain periods, thus making possible large group instruction, and the scheduling of two hour-long blocks of time each week for non-scheduled activities. The results of careful evaluation have indicated that the pupils achieve educationally as well under the schedule variations as they do under the traditional system.

At Golden High School, in Jefferson County, Colorado, the schedules in certain subjects vary daily to provide double periods for sections on certain days, and to provide variety in size of classes by combining sections on certain days. Students meet with their instructors four days a week instead of five. Careful evaluation again shows that just as good results in the pupils' educational development are produced under the modified schedule as under the regular schedule. Results of the study also show that the modified schedule is economically feasible.

E. Eugene Oliver is Principal of Arlington High School, Arlington Heights, Illinois. Enrollment, 2,050.

These variations, combined with team teaching, give teachers more time for preparation, make better use of each teacher's particular talents, avoid the necessity of repetitive teaching, and provide better opportunities for varied learning situations. Problems encountered include the familiar communications difficulties, particularly in insuring that everyone is at the right place at the right time. Another problem stated by some teachers is the feeling that their responsibility for individual students was reduced.

A number of Michigan and Indiana high schools are using five 70-minute periods a day with six classes for each student. Each class meets four periods per week with one period each week reserved for activities. Such a schedule is intended to provide more supervised study, eliminate study halls, permit longer periods for labs, and provide a longer activity period. After two years with such a schedule, the teachers, parents, and students in Griffith, Indiana, strongly endorsed the program. The advantages listed included fewer discipline problems and the opportunity to offer more courses. Some disadvantages were additional scheduling problems, difficulties for slow students in carrying five subjects, and criticisms from some parents that teachers did not allow enough study time.

A very simple type of schedule variation is one which arranges for the same pupils to be scheduled in two different subjects with different teachers during consecutive periods. Cooperation between the two teachers will permit the lengthening of either class to permit special instructional projects. Perhaps the most recent development has been the reorganization of the daily schedule in terms of ten- or twenty-minute "modules" to permit almost unlimited variations in the length of periods.

The questioning of the traditional schedule, and the current experiments with shorter periods, longer periods, and variable periods, are healthy signs. Certainly no principal can remain comfortable without questioning whether his school's schedule is the servant or the master of the instructional program.

WHAT CRUCIAL PROBLEMS CONFRONT THE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL?

CHAIRMAN: *Frank J. Jones*, Principal, William O. Darby Jr. High School, Fort Smith, Arkansas

INTERROGATORS:

LaVerne J. Frink, Principal, Monroe Junior High School, Aberdeen, South Dakota

Ben Walker, Principal, Junior High School, Columbus, Indiana

Summary of the presentation made by CARL CHERKIS

JOHN HEYWOOD in the period preceding the birth of the drama in England wrote an interlude entitled *The 4 P's*. It deals with a Pardoner, a Palmer, and a Potheary who have a contest to determine which of them is the greatest liar. The Pedlar, acting as judge, declares the Palmer the champion for stating that he never saw any woman out of patience. If Heywood were alive today, he might well have substituted "principal of a junior high school" for "woman" to indicate maximum degree of frustration. Indeed, *The 4 P's* might have been written about the principal's struggle for Personnel, Pennies, and Prestige. These constitute his most crucial problems.

To a large extent, the junior high school serves as a revolving door leading the new teacher from the college classroom to the senior high school. This is a tragic situation because the early adolescent, in a revolving door leading from childhood to adulthood, needs adult solidity and permanence in school to keep him from reeling dizzily. To the extent that the junior high school serves as a training school for the senior high-school teacher, it condemns junior high-school pupils to inexperienced teachers and imperfect services. Yet the very teachers who leave the junior high schools tend to denounce them as being difficult places in which to teach, not realizing that the fluid personnel situation that they help to create is largely responsible for the difficulty they complain about.

Obviously, we must stabilize the junior high-school situation. This can be done by copious applications of the last *two P's*, Pennies and Prestige, in interaction on each other. The junior high-school teacher must be made to *want* to stay there. He must take pride in his position. The junior high school must become a *Prestige School*. This can be done by a frank recognition of the fact that it is the most difficult division of the school system; that, whereas teaching technique is of primary importance at the elementary-school level, and scholarship of primary importance

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at the senior high-school level, the junior high-school teacher must be both a scholar and a skillful technician as well as a great-hearted human being.

Recognition must lead to action. The average high-school teacher has a 5-period teaching day, one administrative assignment and one preparation period. The average junior high-school teacher has a somewhat heavier program. Because of the difficulty of his situation, the junior high-school teacher's load should be reduced to four teaching periods and the number of preparation periods should be increased to two. In cities where appointment is made only after passing a competitive examination and in the early stages of the inception of this program, the teaching examination on the junior high-school level should be restricted to high-school teachers who have proved their competence and are invited to take the examination for these prestige positions. It is true that this will take pots of pennies, but manning the junior high schools with competent teachers is no three-penny job.

Among other problems facing the junior high-school principal, *Prestige* as it concerns the community rates major consideration. The citizen who sees two six-year-olds wrestling in front of an elementary school murmurs, "How cute!" The same citizen who sees two fourteen-year-olds wrestling in front of a junior high school mutters, "juvenile delinquents." A public relations program designed to interpret, to the community, not only the curriculum but also the nature of early adolescence must be implemented. This involves adult study groups, use of local radio and television stations, writing articles in the daily papers, and even interpreting early adolescence through the national media by calling on professional writers.

Within the profession itself, the image of a junior high school as a watered-down version of a senior high school, or a glorified version of an elementary school, must be destroyed. The junior high school does not exist to prepare pupils for high school, just as the high school does not exist to prepare them for college. Each exists because it makes a distinct contribution to the young at their particular stage of life development. The pupil learns because of what he is, not because of what he will become. He brushes his teeth to keep them clean today, not to prevent cavities tomorrow. He learns about Africa because it is of significance to him now—else he will forget what he learns by this evening. If this idea is hammered home, the junior high-school teacher will neither feel inferior to the senior high-school teacher nor think in terms of "advancing to the senior high school."

I have deliberately avoided discussing Philosophy, Purposes, Practices, or Plant, because without adequate Personnel all else is drifting ash.

Summary of the presentation made by JAMES W. JORDON

IN MY particular county of Hillsborough, we have 118 schools, 14 of which are junior high schools. One of the problems we have is offering a program of studies sufficiently unified to present a solid front and sufficiently flexible to allow for individual school needs.

Last summer the junior high-school principals met together daily for a month to work out a program of studies bulletin. It has since been approved by the Board of Public Instruction and printed. You will please note that it was the principals who worked out this program of studies. Subject area specialists and coordinators were called in or consulted; many state and national bulletins and publications were read; and county administrative staff members visited to advise with us, but the bulletin was first and last worked out by the principals. Sometimes discussions were long and feelings were strong, but out of it came a statement of purpose and a program of studies. Fourteen principals who had shared and grown together became better principals with greater respect and deeper affection for each other.

One of the crucial problems facing the junior high-school principal is the problem of maintaining his status as the educational leader of his school. The demands of administrative details and the press of public relations have led some principals to abdicate the real educational leadership of their schools to curriculum specialists. Already in a number of school systems, the principal has become the administrative head and other personnel have become the educational heads. I feel strongly that, though athletics, lunchrooms, civic clubs, *etc.* are important, the most important responsibility a principal has is to supervise the instructional program offered in his school and to offer real educational leadership to his faculty. To give dynamic leadership a principal must have:

1. Time for reading the latest professional publications
2. Time for research
3. Time for travel so that he may see experimental methods in action or hear them discussed
4. Time to think and put what he has read, heard, found, and observed together into a practical and meaningful whole in reference to his local school situation
5. Time, most of all, to introduce the new and, we hope, better methods to his faculty and supervise their use of them.

ACCELERATION—HOW MUCH AND WHERE

Other problems facing the junior high-school principal today are: how much accelerating should be done and in what subject area fields. It is

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indeed easy to proceed too rapidly. If we do not have qualified teachers for the accelerated classes, if we do not carry our faculty and parents along with our program, and if, through articulation with the senior high schools, we do not know that our accelerated programs will be continued through the senior high-school grades, our best intended efforts will be in vain. To determine how much acceleration and in what subject areas are problems that each principal must solve by a careful study of his community, students, and faculty.

GROUPING—INDIVIDUAL SCHEDULING

Another problem related to the ones just mentioned is how may a principal see that each student has the instructional program best fitted to his individual abilities and needs? This has always been a problem with all conscientious principals, but the demands of today make it one on which decisive action must be taken. Since we cannot have a private teacher for each pupil, it seems necessary that we attempt to group them according to ability and interest—at least in certain academic subject areas. To block-schedule students in so-called "homogeneous" groups is not the solution, because a student may be quite advanced in one subject area and only average in another. The only solution that I can see is to have individual schedules so that students may be in appropriate groups each period. Thus, a student might be with an average English group the first period, an accelerated mathematics group the second, a strictly heterogeneous group the third period for civics, and so on throughout the day.

This is not easy but we at Tomlin Junior High School, and many other Florida junior high schools, have individual scheduling. We like it because we feel that we are coming closer to giving each student a program tailored to his ability and needs. The day is over when we could just aim at the average student and hope that the bright student wouldn't die of boredom and the slower student of confusion.

Summary of the presentation made by SAMUEL H. POPPER

TO ATTEMPT, in this fast-moving age, an estimate of the curriculum responsibilities facing junior high-school principals in the years ahead calls for a derring-do that is usually associated with the behavior of fools or lunatics. Nevertheless, someone has to assume the risk and suggest such an estimate—even if only in broad contour—because, as the short history of the junior high school demonstrates, when we fail to plan, we plan to fail.

Samuel H. Popper is Associate Professor of Educational Administration University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

As principals charter a course towards the future, they must strive to avoid the twin dangers lurking at the Scylla of the elementary school and the Charybdis of the senior high school by affirming that the complex psychological character of early adolescence is, and must continue to be, the lodestar of the junior high school. Without this guiding star, they run the risk in the future—as we so well know from the past—of turning the junior high school into an extended elementary school or, even worse, into an impotent replica of the senior high school.

So, I suggest that in the future, as now, the first curriculum responsibility of junior high-school principals will be the exercise of professional steadfastness in materializing the basic rationale of the junior high school.

As the demand for creative teaching and learning grows, junior high-school principals will be compelled to give greater prominence to the centerpiece of the junior high-school curriculum—exploration. Current creativity research indicates that exploration is a major element in creative learning. But whereas in the past such exploration in most schools has been limited to the so-called non-academic subjects, the future will see disciplined exploration in the full range of the academic subjects. Hence, specialization will become grossly dysfunctional to the junior high-school curriculum.

Greater demands upon their stewardship will push junior high-school principals closer to the verity noted by the French sociologist Emile Durkheim that "every source of educational life is the society." The latter point is suggested by much of current research which points to the onset of early adolescence as the period when certifications in juvenile court take a radical rise. Limitations of space does not allow for elaboration on this point; suffice to say the junior high-school curriculum, with its built in provisions for remedial reading, extensive home-room guidance, and flexibility, will be discovered as a useful instrument in the drive to contain the exploding delinquency subculture.

Superintendents will look to junior high-school principals to do more by way of bringing families closer to the school-community relations program. At no time are parents more vulnerable to nervous distraction from their offspring than during the junior high-school years. They are grateful for what teachers do to help them understand their children during this difficult period. Established junior high-school routines even now bring parents in close proximity with the curriculum. Others will have to be developed.

Last, junior high-school principals, if they are to cope with curriculum responsibilities of the future, must acquire greater administrative sophistication through more extensive exposure in the social and behavioral sciences.

UNDER WHAT CONDITIONS DOES MERIT RATING SUCCEED OR FAIL?

CHAIRMAN: *Joseph H. Landeau*, Assistant Principal, Ladue Junior High School, St. Louis, Missouri

INTERROGATORS:

Donald R. McKinley, Principal, Senior High School, Davis, California

H. M. Wiggins, Principal, High School, Mount Vernon, Ohio

Karl A. Zettelmoyer, Principal, Conestoga Senior High School, Berwyn, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by **ROBERT G. ANDREE**

THE setting is a high-school district where merit rating appears to have succeeded—Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois. In an area of 36 square miles, a series of high schools is planned, with a maximum of 1,500 pupils in each. The high-school district now serves five communities and has an exceptionally young staff (average age, 31.4 years). Essentially, this is experimental suburbia with no traditions and no vested interests.

How It Works

The school has no salary schedule; an exact formula exists for determining salary ranges, once the initial salary of a teacher with a bachelor of arts degree and no experience is set. New teachers are all placed in "Division I," and some teachers will remain in Division I because they never will become excellent or outstanding teachers. "Division II" is reserved for those who show qualities of productiveness and excellence after three years.

Evaluation of teaching performance occurs annually. For new teachers, there is a check list which, after they have completed it, forms the basis for a conference with the division head. For experienced teachers, there is the opportunity to express insight into their own work through an "expectation sheet." Teachers are asked each year to react to three or four questions based on "expectations of excellent or outstanding teachers." To this self-evaluation is added an anecdotal report from the division head and the principal of the school. Shortly thereafter, there is a meeting of the principal, division head, director of general services, and the superintendent to determine the salary offer for the next year. Some attempt has been made to place the teachers in quartiles of effectiveness although no great emphasis is placed on this procedure.

Robert G. Andree is Superintendent of Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois.

After the committee compiles and reviews all salary recommendations, the document is referred to the board of education. There questions are asked on individual members, but the board casts one vote for the entire recommendation. If there should be differences of opinion, these are referred back to the administrative committee. After board action, a letter is sent to each teacher, commending him for whatever constructive work was done that year and naming the salary.

Concomitant features of a merit program are: (a) a strong sick-leave policy and (b) a generous sabbatical policy. At Rich High School, sick leave is permitted to accumulate without limit on the basis of ten days per year and teachers are eligible for a sabbatical leave after the sixth year, at 70% of the preceding year's salary. Some teachers choose to take a "sabbatical" in the eighth, ninth, or tenth years.

When a teacher is invited to Division II, he arranges a program of personal and professional growth which involves the planning of summers. Currently, a teacher plans a four-year bloc that consists of: (a) further study in colleges and universities; (b) paid summer work in a related area in industry or society; (c) a whole summer of relaxation or travel; and (d) a summer working in the high school in teaching or in curriculum planning.

RESULTS

Improvements of the system have been suggested by teachers from time to time. As a result of the latest poll of the teachers' association, the following comments were made:

"Teachers think that the policy of unlimited sick leave is a good inducement for Rich High School and that it is a very satisfactory policy."

"Teachers feel the plan of sabbatical leave plays a large part in keeping excellent teachers at Rich High School. However, they would like to see the term 'sabbatical leave' and the method of application for this program better defined."

"Merit system . . . teachers believe this is a good program. They feel, however, that a base salary formula should be established with merit raises to be granted above base formula. Some teachers would like to study their evaluation as made by the administration."

"Many Division I teachers desire to understand better the procedures of moving to Division II. Division II teachers like present policies but believe that they could be improved."

Under what conditions does merit rating succeed or fail? The primary condition is mutual trust and a complete recognition of the dignity of teaching, on whatever level the teacher operates. Evaluation must be sympathetic and understanding; it must be incisive and complete.

Summary of the presentation made by R. C. BURAU

ANY group contemplating the organization, development, and/or possible addition of merit provisions in a teacher salary schedule should heed the lessons learned from the past. They should make haste slowly and include in their deliberations those persons, or representatives of those persons, who are in any way affected by the plans under consideration. This group should include teachers, administrators, board members, and spokesmen for local community organizations. The most dedicated professional effort must be made to develop plans cooperatively. Techniques must be provided that will prevent, regulate, and/or keep to a minimum the disadvantages for education and educators that are probable in any program, schedule, or policy providing for merit. Injustice must not result for individuals, and a yes-man attitude must not be encouraged. Care must be taken so as not to damage cooperative group or committee efforts. Specific provision must be made for all factors involved. There must be thoroughness in the statements of policies and procedures. Consideration must be given to the quality of administration available as well as to the complexion of the board of education and the community.

Objectivity must be stressed in all the techniques of evaluation employed. However, because of the nature of education and teaching and the value of experience and judgment, it should be recognized that subjective judgment cannot and should not be completely eliminated.

It appears that no one can solve the salary problems, particularly the problems involving merit compensation in the teaching profession, except the teachers themselves. It must be recognized that the quality of education and the profession cannot rise above the character and quality of those who teach. Merit compensation, in diverse ways, appears to be a bench mark of professionalism. Fundamental is the recognition and acceptance among professionals that a portion of the group is rendering a service of such high caliber and distinction that they deserve monetary consideration above the average as well as other forms of recognition. To level all off to the same plateau based upon years of service or preparation is to have mediocrity as the standard for the vocation; and a vocation will not be a full-fledged profession recognized as such by laymen and other professionals until and unless the vocation sets high standards for itself and recognizes exceptional service within its own ranks! For those who continue to do a professionally acceptable, satisfactory job, teaching must be financially as well as aesthetically satisfying even when there are those who are compensated above the norm for their services. There are indications that the practice of merit compensation can serve to

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build morale for all and not serve to frustrate, provided the profession takes a professional view of the practice and furnishes leadership for the development of the policies and procedures. Those engaged in educational endeavors must be realistic about the "objective-subjective evaluation question"; of course many of the aspects of educational service are intangible and only capable of subjective evaluation. It appears that the operation of any plan of merit compensation should not be predicated upon the judgment of any one administrative officer without provision for operation within a policy framework that has definite boundaries. There must exist the full realization that all the objectively obtained evidence that can be amassed still must be subjectively evaluated in the final analysis. Educators who teach cannot and should not expect administrators and boards to surrender their administrative prerogatives and responsibilities and turn the matter over completely to the teachers. Our American system of private corporate management lends evidence to substantiate this viewpoint.

Professional recognition in monetary and intangible forms is properly possible only through work appraisal or evaluation. Serious injustices have been inflicted upon educators—teachers and administrators alike—in appraisal practices. However, appraisal must and does take place with or without a policy. Therefore, it is just good sense for educators to develop within the profession those practices, policies, and techniques which are acceptable to professionals who are dependent upon public funds for their compensation.

Stubborn as the problems surrounding merit compensation may be, there are indications that they will yield to scientific exploration, experimentation, and development. It is quite apparent that satisfactory solutions to these problems cannot be found unless effort of a search¹ is made!

Summary of the presentation made by GUY SALYER

IN THE past five years under pressure from the press and public, there has been a demand to reconsider the principle of merit rating, possibly because it might improve teaching effectiveness and financially reward those who do the best teaching. Late surveys have shown that a majority of administrators and school boards favor this principle and a majority of teachers do not. State legislators have also become interested in merit rating. Only a few administrators have presented work-

¹ The complete report of a study, "Merit Compensation Opportunity for Public School Teachers in New York State," (314 pages) by the author, is available for reference through: The Library of Congress, Washington, D. C., University of Buffalo Library, Buffalo, N. Y., Grossenor Reference Library, Buffalo, N. Y.

Guy Salyer is Professor of Psychology and Education, Stout State College, Menomonie, Wisconsin.

able plans. To date there is no generally accepted evidence that comparative teacher evaluation can be validly and effectively done. Methods to judge good teaching need to be developed. There are, however, on-going merit programs in some communities which seem to be working.

In setting up and executing merit rating programs the following principles should receive careful consideration:

1. *Choice of plan and program should grow out of a cooperative local study.* The plan should be accepted by a majority of teachers, administrators, supervisors, and interested lay public. Executive coercion or mandate has no place in a workable program. Plans from other systems may give suggestions. Best results come from a cooperative plan developed locally and initiated on a trial basis.

2. *A rating system should be based on an accepted philosophy of teaching.* Agreement must be established concerning the individual value of each item rated. Creativeness, originality, initiative, and inspiration must be provided for in any rating scheme. Since there is danger in standardization of procedures, experimentation is basic. Numerous rater observations, visits in classrooms, and conferences with teachers should result in teacher competency as measured by pupil growth.

3. *Merit should be clearly and exactly defined.* Accurate, comparative, reliable, objective, and valid criteria for evaluation of teaching effectiveness must be attained. Evaluative instruments may be developed from a job analysis of teaching duties, selection of types of teaching behaviors, designation of teacher-pupil interactions, and identification of teacher traits and characteristics.

4. *Careful revision of rating factors and reassignment of values to items should be continuous.* Every attempt must be made to avoid subjectivity of judgment. Careful consideration must be given to various courses, age spans, and the social nature of teaching. It must be assumed that fair ratings can be made about individual teachers, in spite of long-time pupil changes in behavior.

5. *Time and expense involved in the process should be accepted as worth while.* Evaluators must be dedicated persons and be carefully and continuously trained. Many more highly trained rating experts and clerical workers must be employed to attain valid ratings (Utah report). Finances or a percentage ratio should not arbitrarily limit the number of meritorious teachers recognized.

6. *A system of evaluation should be accepted as impartial and remain above reproach.* The integrity of administrative and supervisory ratings must be maintained. Evaluations must be done by professional leaders not inspectors. Ratings must be free from caprice, favoritism, friendship, personalities, dishonesty, and politics. Mystery, secrecy, and retribution are not factors in an on-going program. Public salaries do not remain secretive.

7. *Teacher evaluations should be subject to appeal.* Administrators, supervisors, and committee raters must be willing to make rating selections and to defend a review or appeal. Confidence in a rating system develops by means of democratic explanations.

8. *A system of rating should not decrease teacher morale.* Good professional relationships must be maintained among teachers and between teachers and evaluators. Over a period of time, merit rating must not inhibit cooperative discussion and sharing of techniques. If suspicion, jealousy, strife, and intense rivalry is developed, pupil learning is limited.

9. *Rating efforts should strive to increase the competency of the entire staff.* Administrators and supervisors as well as teachers should be agreeable to ratings; each group to be rated on the basis of its performance. Stability in staff is a prerequisite for learning.

10. *A rating system should recognize that professional teachers are a select group.* Teacher screening has been done on the basis of college attendance, selection and certification, and by administrative actions such as placement, reassignment, and retirement. Discriminatory ratings of teachers must be made from poorest to best.

The public and boards of education must realize the difficulties in the use of valid criteria for merit rating. Industrialists like educators have experienced difficulties in the qualitative rating of highly inter-personal types of work. Research must continue to seek the use of more valid criteria for the improvement of instruction and related teacher evaluation techniques. Merit rating is only one phase of teacher personnel program and should not be overemphasized at the neglect of other aspects of such a program.

THE CASE FOR AND AGAINST MULTIPLE HIGH-SCHOOL DIPLOMAS

CHAIRMAN: *Cliff Robinson*, Superintendent, Klamath County Schools,
Klamath Falls, Oregon

INTERROGATORS:

B. W. Crawshaw, Principal, Joint Junior-Senior High School, Mercer,
Pennsylvania

Charles P. Lindecamp, Principal, Garfield Heights High School, Cleve-
land, Ohio

Thomas Stirling, Principal, Thomas Carr Howe High School, Indian-
apolis, Indiana

Summary of the presentation made by MARY E. MEADE

THE pressures of providing quality education for the potential scien-
tist and for the potential school leaver have reopened the quarter century
argument concerning the multiple high-school diplomas. Should there be
one diploma for all graduates? Should there be a certificate for those who
did their best, but who did not earn a diploma? Should there be sepa-
rate diplomas for different courses? Should there be diplomas with honor
or distinction? Should the diploma contain a transcript of the high-
school record?

The principals of New York City high schools have debated these ques-
tions at great length, and the present decision is to award multiple
diplomas.

New York City has vocational high schools, technical high schools,
special high schools in music and art, and in science, and each one has
its own special diploma which demands more than 18 units. The average
so-called "academic" high school offers 3 diplomas—academic, commer-
cial, and general. The names indicate the emphasis. The general diploma
calls for 18 units rather than 19; more freedom is given in the groupings
of elective subjects; and the passing of state examinations is not required.
Usually some of the electives chosen prepare the student for a simple
job, and the course is usually terminal. In most cases, the student has
tried the academic or commercial course, and failed. We think it is one
of the reasons for our holding power in the academic high schools.

The elementary and junior high schools continue to give the single
diploma, but the entire record of the pupil is sent to the high school. This
is used as a basis for the program of the pupil, so it is incumbent on the
pupil to do his best so as to be admitted to the regular high-school courses.

Mary E. Meade is Assistant Superintendent of the High-School Division,
Board of Education, New York City.

When the pupil is graduated from high school, he has to present his credentials to a variety of people—college admission committees, civil service boards, and employers, to name a few. The first two groups demand a complete record, so appending it to the diploma is unnecessary. The people reading such a record are fully acquainted with high-school nomenclature, so the transcript has real meaning. The future employer, on the other hand, wants an efficient instrument to screen the applicants before asking for further references, and the diploma is used in that way. One of our problems in New York City is the education of the employers and the public in the meanings of the different types of diplomas.

If we are to give the individualized instruction necessary for the proper education of the adolescents in our high schools, we must provide various tracks and programs. We hope to demand excellence in the courses assigned. If that is to be done, we must reward honestly the pupils who successfully work to capacity—hence our multiple diplomas with or without citations.

Summary of the presentation made by H. C. CAMPBELL

THE concept of the multiple diploma is not new, but the practice of the issuance of such by some high schools has given rise to varied opinions as to resultant value. There have been many arguments over the *pros* and *cons* concerning this practice. One may hear it said, "It's undemocratic." Others deny this charge.

In 1958-59 an NEA research study¹ showed that 93 per cent of all high schools still issued only one type of diploma to all graduating pupils. This does not necessarily mean that all schools should issue only one type of diploma. One of the oddities of performance observed over the years is that if any new procedures or methods are instituted, many adopt their usage without thinking through the whys and wherefores. Perhaps this leads to the conclusion that there are more followers than leaders.

Certainly the type of school, the size of school, and the community where it is located, all have a bearing on the reason for and the effectiveness of the use of the multiple diploma. Let us take, for example, the effectiveness of the use of such a diploma in a high school comprising pupils from a school system which practiced "social promotion" up to the high-school level. The children had acquired, over the years of elementary- and junior high-school schooling, the knowledge that they would get promoted regardless of the caliber of work done. The high-school

¹ National Education Association, Research Division. *High-School Diplomas and Graduation Requirements*, Research Memo 1959-27. Washington 6, D. C.: the Association. December 1959. P. 6.

H. C. Campbell is Principal of Key West High School, Key West, Florida. Enrollment, 1,065.

principal, after observing for two years that the pupils were not selecting the so-called "tough" subjects, decided—after much thought, discussion, and planning—to adjust the curriculum with definite courses of study leading to the required diploma.

The basic needs of youth are met through judicious direction by the experienced adults who are part of their daily lives—parents, teachers, neighbors, church leaders. These adults should outline for the young a definite role for assuming the responsibilities to earn a living and to take their places in the adult world. We are concerned here with the parent-teacher role in preparing the child along one of three courses of study: the academic, the commercial, and the general.

Those schools which are interested not only in getting their graduates into college, but also in keeping them in college, must certainly provide a course of study consistent with the increasing college requirements. Therefore, if school official, parents, and child discuss and plan for the child's future, then, if the pupil is college-bound, he will not learn too late that he is not fully prepared for the role. The "academic" diploma represents just that.

The value of the "commercial" diploma has been proved almost immediately after graduation. Even though all-commercial majors are not superior material, they are sufficiently trained to step into good positions as clerks or stenographers. The graduate with such a diploma feels pride in its value when he finds he is not a poorly prepared misfit in his field, and the high school gains prestige with the business people of the community.

The third type of diploma, the "general," carries no stigma—it prepares one for his role in the work-a-day world even though he is not college material nor "white collar." It provides exploratory areas as well as those basic courses which will prepare one to be a responsible citizen in the adult community.

The multiple-diploma plan does not close the door to any pupil, but rather opens avenues of experience. Changes in course of study may be made, but it becomes more difficult in the junior and senior year, and they become less frequent because parents and pupils become acquainted at registration time with the requirements.

Perhaps the most important factors deriving from the experience in the above-cited high school are that it stopped those critics who had been declaiming that a modern high school gives only a "watered-down" version of what prevailed years ago; that it enabled the school officials to group pupils not only by broad curriculum offerings, but also within each course of study; and, what is most important, that the pupils are benefiting from these changes.

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT K. SORENSEN

THE high-school diploma—presented under ceremonial circumstances to many thousands of young Americans at the conclusion of each school year—has been an object of concern since the acceptance of the philosophy of “education for all American youth.” What does the diploma mean? What is its significance to the person who receives it? In seeking the answer to these questions, people have engaged in considerable experimentation with the issuance of various types of limited and specialized certificates. Some advocates of the differentiated diploma hold that students in the various areas of instruction are given increased incentive toward higher achievement because they are free to concentrate more of their educational effort in areas of particular personal interest.

It is held further by the proponents of the issuance of multiple type high-school diplomas that we will thus recognize that there are different levels of difficulty in the various high-school courses and that this is merely an extension of this recognition from the college level to the high-school level. Confusion will thus be erased from the minds of students, it is argued, regarding the real significance of their achievement and of the courses taken during their high-school years.

Criticism of the inadequacy of the high-school graduate will disappear because employers will know the meaning of “high-school diploma” and will no longer assume that the holder is guaranteed to be qualified to accept general responsibilities based upon the demonstrated acquisition of a broad educational base. Those who question the adequacy of the issuance of multiple diplomas feel that instead of clarifying the public picture we would be contributing more confusing elements by increasing the number of types of diplomas. Some argue further against the specialized diploma in the sincere belief that the student receiving the “easy diploma” would actually suffer from discrimination—in the public mind as well as in his own mind.

Involved in the discussion of adequacies and inadequacies of the high-school diploma—whether single or multiple—is a consideration of our entire philosophy of public education and the rights of all youth to freedom of educational opportunity. The recognition of individual differences and the proclaiming of these differences from a public commencement platform are significant points to consider in determining views concerning this problem.

The long-range significance of the high-school diploma is dependent upon the emphasis placed upon the granting of it by the public. If graduation from high school is to be relatively unselective, it is most important that adequate information concerning the scope and quality of

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student achievement be made available to prospective employers and all other legitimate and interested agencies. These are the people who really need to know the true qualifications of the young people who leave our high schools with diplomas each year. If this information is provided as a part of the diploma or in addition to it, the relative significance of the multiple or single diploma declines because the recipient and all other interested parties will know that the important information—how well the student achieved in the work taken—will have been provided.

WHAT POLICY AND ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION IN THE LARGE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *John M. Fletcher*, Administrative Assistant to the Deputy Superintendent, D. C. Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

INTERROGATORS:

John F. Curry, Assistant Professor of Education, North Texas State College, Denton, Texas

W. D. Harper, Principal, Dunbar Junior High School, Little Rock, Arkansas

Summary of the presentation made by C. F. McCORMICK

PRESENTLY Jarrett Junior High School is organized as a 2-year program in the 6-2-4 plan. The system-wide organization for supervision includes a director of curriculum and research, a director of personnel and departmental advisers in some areas. The director of personnel relates his department to supervision by the criteria which he uses in the selection of teachers and their assignments to specific situations. The director of curriculum and research is responsible for the over-all plan of supervision for the in-service education of teachers, curriculum development, and evaluation.

There is continuous communication between these departments. Departmental supervisors act as coordinators of a given program among the several schools. At any time in a given building, the departmental supervisor works with the principal of that building. The principal is the key person in the supervisory program as he is the educational leader of his unit.

C. F. McCormick is Principal of the Jarrett Junior High School, 840 S. Jefferson, Springfield, Missouri. Enrollment, 800.

At Jarrett, because of continuing personnel over a long period of time, ways of working have evolved which are generally understood and accepted. Supervision here is guided by principles which have proved sound and productive more often than not. All of these principles support the thesis that supervision is aimed solely at improving learning in the school situation. Much effort in supervision is directed toward creating a social and emotional climate in the school organization which frees individuals from threat. Free discussion, encouraging differing viewpoints, is sought. Leadership changes according to competencies demanded in a given situation or problem. Group formulation of policies and programs of action consistent with system-wide philosophy is made. Enlistment of the abilities of many teachers is sought. When a feeling of acceptance and mutuality is achieved, teachers become free to seek help from the principal, the supervisor, or other teachers. This is a desirable posture.

Through the years a variety of techniques of supervision have been employed. None of them is original. Any originality related to them would have to be in the manner in which they have been employed. Among them are classroom visitation, large conference groups, small conference groups, workshops, suggested professional reading, selection and use of instructional material, working on local research, individual counseling, professional faculty meetings, continuous efforts at improving evaluation of outcomes, *etc.*

Evaluation of the techniques above indicates in our experience that some are much more productive than others. The least productive seems to be classroom visitation. It is time consuming and of minor value unless the teacher invites the supervisor to appear to assist with a problem. The workshop, properly conceived and carried through is probably the most productive. The small-group conference likewise has been quite successful. Either of these inventions lends itself to working on a variety of problems. The conference is more easily managed than the workshop and can be continuous.

In general, teacher growth is most likely when the principles of learning are respected. Attacking problems that are of genuine concern to teachers makes learning purposeful; hence, authentic and economical.

Summary of the presentation made by M. H. ROBB

SUPERVISORY duties at Euclid Central Junior High School are distributed among administrative personnel, designated department chairmen, and special subject supervisors. Because we realize that no individual, even if he had time, could possibly have a broad enough back-

M. H. Robb is Principal of Euclid Central Junior High School, 1520 Chardon Road, Euclid 17, Ohio. Enrollment, 750.

ground to be able to aid and evaluate the learning process, we have been developing a supervisory program aimed at utilizing as many supervisory personnel as possible.

Our major objectives for the program are, (1) the improvement of all levels of instruction, and (2) the increase of staff quality and efficiency to bring about this improvement. The nature of our general objectives therefore dictate a division of responsibility among the supervisory personnel.

While the responsibility for personnel and programming lies directly with the principal, assistant principals are delegated authority for supervision in the area or areas of their specialty. One of the two assistant principals is assigned specific supervisory duties among personnel of the science and math departments, while the other assistant principal is responsible for supervision of the English and social studies areas. The principal maintains supervisory contact with all other departments and all new teachers approaching tenure. Each department is assigned a teaching department chairman who has released time for this assignment. Teachers' schedules are so arranged that the department chairman has the opportunity to observe all of the teachers in his particular department, and time to confer with these teachers individually and in groups.

In addition to the department chairmen, there is assigned to the building a full-time reading and teaching consultant who, although he has no direct administrative or supervisory authority, is free to consult and visit with teachers about their programs. His particular services deal mainly with ability groupings, selection of subject material, and teaching techniques and methods most appropriate to the various groups.

The supervisory program is planned by the administrative personnel and department chairmen so that each teacher, and particularly new teachers, are observed over a long period of time by all members of the supervisory staff. Before the observations begin, supervisory personnel plan their visitations with special emphasis as to areas and/or techniques they feel should be observed for that particular department. For example, the English supervisors may, at the direction of the principal, be especially concerned about compositions or some other phase of the English program. The supervisor therefore will, through analysis of teachers' unit plans (which are turned in to department chairmen prior to the beginning of each unit), select a time schedule which should provide opportunities for them to observe the various English teachers in the process of teaching composition.

After a period of observation which may involve continuous visitations by all personnel of the department over a period of one to two weeks, a conference is held with the teacher and those persons who have made the observation. The teacher is given a copy of the evaluation made by the supervisors and the points of strength and weaknesses are discussed. For new teachers and second-year teachers about to be recommended

for tenure, all administrative and supervisory personnel in the building may be asked to make observations when there is a special need for help.

The second year of this program has begun to reflect noticeable improvement in program and teaching quality. New teachers adapt themselves to this close supervision much more readily, of course, than do older teachers who have had less supervision over the years. We feel that a continuation and improvement of this program will definitely result in the growth of staff and in the replacement of those staff members who do not measure up to the qualities expected by the school system.

Summary of the presentation made by CLAYTON E. BUELL

IN A well-administered school certain policies underlie what is done. Some of the most important policies that relate to supervision are stated here, with resulting practices.

Policy No. 1: The principal is responsible for all supervision in his school, but delegates certain responsibilities to his staff. When the principal gives responsibilities for certain areas to staff members, he must give them authority in these same areas. Without this reciprocal authority, staff members become merely servants. When the principal delegates responsibility to his supervisory staff, he is bound by the decisions made by them. If certain decisions are not acceptable, the principal must either supply the needed in-service training or he must transfer the responsibility to someone else. Principals often "bootleg" the additional help they need by taking teachers from the classrooms and giving them supervisory duties for a part of the day. Decisions made by these teachers must be supported by the principal, as are those of the recognized supervisory staff.

Policy No. 2: The principal is responsible for developing leadership in his staff. The principal must discover members of his staff who are capable, encourage them, give them some opportunities to practice supervision, and help them grow. Concurrent with this, there must be *bona fide* opportunities for advancement. Teachers must recognize that they exist and that they must be attainable. The success of a school district may depend on the effectiveness of principals in developing the manpower entrusted to them. One important measure of the worth of a principal is the extent and quality of leadership that develops under his supervision.

Policy No. 3: The staff must be involved in supervisory practices. Morale is imposed when all who are affected have some place in the formulation of policy. But democratic practices recognize that there is a place for the designated leader. Many times the principal should make

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decisions without bringing the matter before the teachers. The problem may not be important enough to take the time needed, or the staff may not be qualified to make a particular decision. The principal must determine which problems should be brought to the staff, which ones he should discuss with them before making the decision himself, and which ones should not be forced on them. Good judgment in deciding which problems should be handled in these ways will increase morale immeasurably.

Policy No. 4: The function of supervision is the improvement of instruction. The principal must stimulate creativity and imagination. Without genuine experimentation based on well-thought-out planning, the school deteriorates. The principal must do his best to provide office help so that teachers may devote their time to developing their best professional ideas, rather than doing poorly what a typist on a much lower salary can do much more effectively and efficiently. The principal should take the lead in insisting on getting the needed help. It is the school's responsibility to develop with teachers the best practices suggested in the courses of study. And the best practices of teachers must, in turn, feed back into courses of study as they are developed and revised.

Organization: There must be staff members within the school whose supervisory responsibilities and priorities are established.

The vice principal should be considered a supervisor of teachers for a major part of his time, rather than spending most of his time with pupils in discipline cases. And if there are two or three vice principals, each should share in the leadership role. The vice principal can do much in preventing discipline problems from arising if he works closely with teachers in improving their techniques and their lessons.

Several "curriculum co-ordinators" should each be responsible for two or three subject areas in the junior high school, where they help to improve instruction and integrate the subject matter. However, in no case should the departmentalized plan of the senior high school with its competition between departments and department heads be established in the junior high school. The services of teachers may be "bootlegged" for specific purposes. This practice is healthy because it solves certain problems in supervision while giving opportunities for teachers to develop leadership ability.

One of the most effective techniques in supervision is the use of committees of teachers. These may be continuing committees that plan professional activities for the faculty, develop the curriculum, lay out a plan for the gifted pupils in the school, or they may be *ad hoc* committees that do small jobs and then dissolve.

When committees operate properly, they serve two purposes: they find practical answers to difficult problems, and they help to keep the morale of the faculty high.

In a large school system much help is given the school from the central office. Curriculum development is done centrally through the use of

committees of teachers from the various schools. The selection of textbooks becomes a city-wide necessity because of the mobility of population in a city. The school is offered services in such diverse areas as guidance and counseling, testing, audio-visual aids library, television teaching, in-service education of teachers, use of community resources, pupil accounting, supervision of some subjects, and orientation of new teachers.

In our system, junior high-school principals meet together twice a month in professional meetings to discuss mutual problems and solutions. Once a month, vice principals meet for the same purpose. And department chairmen from all schools meet to discuss their subject area, in terms of the course of study, or textbooks, or supplies, or improvement of instruction.

Major Problems: There are some serious problems that we are still trying to solve. Opportunities for advancement in the junior high school are limited, when only the vice principals and the principal are paid to supervise. The creation of curriculum co-ordinators would help this situation.

Supervisory jobs in senior high school seem to be more desirable when they are paid at a higher scale or when they have more prestige. A problem of keeping good people in junior high school is thus created. The lack of time, or the lack of priority, given to the supervision of instruction is a major problem in some schools, where routine matters take a great deal of time and are important.

Another major problem has been referred to above—the lack of adequate clerical and typing assistance for both supervisory and teaching staff. These problems are not insurmountable. They can be solved. But they will not be solved unless we are continually aware of them and unless we continually press for solutions to them.

HOW IMPROVE THE READING SKILLS AND HABITS OF SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS?

CHAIRMAN: *Milford R. Painter*, Principal, Carroll High School, Ozark, Alabama

INTERROGATORS:

William H. Blatnik, Superintendent, Township High School, Lockport, Illinois

John E. Codwell, Principal, Jack Yates Senior High School, Houston, Texas

Wilbur S. Hoopengardner, Superintendent, Caroline County Schools, Denton, Maryland

Summary of the presentation made by WALTER G. PATTERSON

SIGNIFICANT progress has been made in the teaching of reading in high schools. With increased emphasis on quality education, even greater effort is needed both to improve existing programs of reading¹ and to offer reading courses in high schools not now teaching reading. To obtain information about developmental reading in high schools, a questionnaire survey of the 249 high schools in Massachusetts was made in 1960. Replies were received from 244 high schools, 98 per cent returns.

Developmental reading programs were reported in 106 high schools, and 138 high schools reported no developmental reading although a number of schools indicated that they are planning to start reading programs soon. No attempt was made to determine the extent or quality of the reading programs, but the comments indicate that the programs vary greatly from school to school and that such a study ought to be made.

The following question was directed to the 138 schools reporting no developmental reading programs: "Do you believe that a developmental reading program would be helpful to your students?" Eighty-one high schools answered, "Great help"; forty-four said, "Helpful"; and only three principals thought developmental reading "Unnecessary." Ten schools did not answer the question. A number of the eighty-one schools believing a developmental program to be of "Great help" may be expected to introduce reading programs in the next few years.

The 138 high schools responded to this question, "If you believe that a developmental reading program would be helpful in your school and you do not have one, why do you not have one?" The reasons given were:

¹ A carefully worded recommendation for teaching students to read in high schools was reported in *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, No. 258, October 1960, pp. 52-53.

Walter G. Patterson is Principal of the Needham Senior High School, Needham Heights 94, Massachusetts. Enrollment, 1,100.

85—no provision in the budget; 68—no teacher available; 52—no classroom available for teaching reading; 46—no official approval; and 21 others gave reasons such as double sessions, full student schedules, new schools, plans under way, concentrating on remedial, and will ask for one in 1961.

To offer developmental reading instruction in high schools, a philosophy must be formulated, plans made, funds provided in the budget, teachers selected, and classrooms provided. The success of the reading program depends to a large extent upon the enthusiasm and leadership of the high-school principal.

The 106 high schools reporting developmental reading programs were asked, "Where did you obtain your reading teacher?" Sixty-four reading teachers were selected from the high-school staff, fourteen teachers were obtained through college or university placement, seven were selected from elementary-school staffs, two were secured through teachers agencies, and thirteen teachers were obtained from other sources.

The evidence indicates that there are not enough trained teachers of reading. Obtaining a qualified reading teacher is a major step to assure an effective reading program. A principal must survey all possible sources. Elementary and junior high-school teachers, teachers agencies, schools of education, colleges and universities, summer and evening school staffs are sources for selecting reading teachers. Many of the reading teachers in Massachusetts high schools are selected from the high-school staff, and the teachers obtain additional specialized training in colleges and reading workshops.

Summary of the presentation made by G. E. MINICLIER

WHAT is the responsibility of the high school toward reading? What can we do about the student who comes to us with poor reading ability? Who in the secondary school has the responsibility for the pupil's continued growth in reading? If you and your faculty have been asking these questions and similar ones regarding this instructional problem, you are ready for an intense review of your reading problem.

The key position in developing an all-school reading program rests with the high-school principal. Such a program, however, must come from a felt need of the faculty and not be imposed upon them. It is the duty of the principal and that of his appointed co-ordinator of the program to provide the leadership that will bring *every member* of the faculty to play a definite part in both the developmental and remedial aspects of the program.

Gordon Miniclier is Principal of Washington Senior High School, St. Paul, Minnesota. Enrollment, 800.

As the faculty recognizes that an attack on the reading improvement problem should be made, questions arise as to what steps should be taken. How can the nature and extent of the reading problem be identified? What provisions are essential for the improvement of poor readers? To whom should the responsibility be delegated? To what extent should the average and superior readers be included in the program? What are the respective obligations of teachers of English and the content subjects in increasing the reading efficiency of pupils? What are the most effective methods of stimulating reading interests among high-school pupils and of elevating reading tastes?

If a school is going to develop its own attack on this problem, the entire personnel of the high school must be made to recognize that problems involved in reading affect them. Results of a good reading test, administered to the entire school, are often sufficient evidence to arouse the necessary interest. It is helpful if the test scores can be interpreted in individual grade levels so that the range of any particular class can be easily determined and the reading grade of individual pupils seen at a glance. Though standardized reading tests are essential to developing an awareness to the reading problem, they should be supplemented by such other methods as informal tests, observation, and pointed discussion of differences in the reading habits of successful and failing students.

After the faculty becomes fully aware of the problem, the question naturally arises concerning what can be done about it. A discussion of this step usually brings about the allocation of responsibility. There is a need here for each department to set plans and goals. The English teachers will probably have the responsibility of developing the basic competencies in reading, as well as teaching reading of their specialized material and becoming co-ordinators of the reading program in the school. If reading is to be used as means to an end, each teacher must be able to teach those special reading skills which are needed to understand the material that is to be read. Only the mathematics teacher may be expected to have taught the specialized vocabulary of that subject, and no other teacher should be so well prepared to develop or so interested in developing the special skills needed to read an assignment in mathematics. Reading growth must be considered developmental and the responsibility of all teachers. Plans should also be made to help those students whose problems are so serious that they need the assistance of a trained remedial teacher.

Provisions must be made for obtaining reading materials to meet the existing range of abilities. Here again the departments and individual teachers must decide what is best. Help will be needed from librarians and specialists. Additional material will be developed as the program progresses. Teachers will have to know their material, its concept difficulties, interest appeal, vocabulary, and place in the program.

Summary of the presentation made by M. A. POVENMIRE

OUR chief concern in the establishment of a Reading Center at Lakewood High School last year was whether it would carry a stigma which would prevent senior high students from using it efficiently. In order to minimize the difficulty of having students hesitant to use the facilities of the laboratory, each English class was scheduled for an exploratory session in it. Anthony DiBiasio, the teacher, discussed with these groups its purposes, emphasizing the developmental program aimed at the improvement of skills of the normal reader. As a result, over eleven hundred of the seventeen hundred students signed up for the instruction. Most of these are taking college preparatory courses. They understood that it would involve the use of their own time from three study periods each week for nine weeks for which they would receive no grade for the work done. Members of the senior class were given the first opportunity to participate in the program, and over five hundred students received instruction in developmental reading during the first year.

The work is designed to help the student become a better reader of all kinds of material, and, therefore, better in all subjects requiring reading. It begins by recognizing whatever the student has accomplished in the way of reading proficiency and builds upon these skills to provide better achievement, new skills in reading, and better appreciation. It stresses speed, comprehension, correct study habits, and methods for remembering and concentrating. In short, it starts where the reader is and encourages him to proceed as far as his energy and desire will take him.

Although no credit is given, each student keeps a continuous record of his own progress so that the instruction is focused on achievement. Special skills and habits which are developed through this training include increasing reading speed and span of perception, eliminating sub-vocal reading, developing rhythmic eye movements, and improving ability to grasp main ideas.

In addition to the developmental program given three days each week, there is remedial instruction open to any student in the school who needs special help. This emphasizes word study and is given twice each week for as long as there is a recognized need.

The instruction given in the Reading Center is an important part of the all-school emphasis on reading. Subject matter teachers help students apply reading skills to materials adjusted to basic, regular, and advanced ability groups. They help them also to integrate these skills with the other communication skills of writing, speaking, and listening.

Mahlon A. Povenmire is Principal of Lakewood High School, Lakewood, Ohio.

There also has been considerable interest in an adult reading program which meets two evenings a week. A number of professional people are included in those taking the opportunity of improving their reading skills through the training given in the laboratory.

The equipment and materials in the Reading Center include: 20 reading booths (30" x 30"), 20 reading pacers and shadowscopes, a 16mm projector for showing motivating sound films and silent training films, a set of Purdue high-school and college reading films with comprehension and vocabulary tests, a projection film screen, 250 fiction and non fiction books, Triggs' *Diagnostic Reading Tests*, a tachistoscope for perception reading and SVE filmstrips, 25 copies on *How To Become a Better Reader* by Witte, stop watch, a slide projector, dictionaries, Reader's Digest series on *Reading Skill Builders*, SRA *Be a Better Reader* series, SRA *Reading Laboratory* (Secondary Edition), and *Towards Better Reading Skills* by Caspar Griffin of Purdue University.

The success of this program depends, in addition, on having a capable, enthusiastic teacher who can challenge students on their own ability level.

THORNY PROBLEM—HOW WEIGHT STUDENT MARKS IN HONORS COURSES?

CHAIRMAN: W. Fred Blackmon, Area Representative, State Department of Education, Thomson, Georgia

INTERROGATORS:

Robert L. Kerth, Principal, Humboldt County High School, Winnemucca, Nevada

William M. Kulstad, Principal, Oak Hills High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

Byron A. Zude, Principal, Center Senior High School, Kansas City, Missouri

Summary of the presentation made by R. P. BRIMM

TOO often the marks from our high-school classes are a strange mixture of attitudes, efforts, and achievement. To complicate the matter further, we have no formula to guide us in the mixing of these ingredients and each teacher weights these elements in accordance with his own desires. The result is a mark that is meaningless because no one knows how much of it is based on the pupil's ability to achieve or an achievement to a set standard.

R. P. Brimm is Principal of Teachers College High School, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

The two major purposes of marks, reporting to parents and predicting success in college, are incompatible. Too often the "D" on the report card of a low ability pupil produces a pressure from home that eventually results in complete frustration and a drop-out. On the other hand, an "A" on the report card of a pupil with superior ability indicates to the parent that he is working up to his ability when in reality it is a license to continue loafing his way through school and making high scores on tests without "cracking a book." Actually a mark based on achievement according to set standards or on a normal frequency distribution curve is doing untold damage both to the pupil with low ability and also the pupil with superior ability. When we look at the other side of the picture, a mark based on attitude and effort is not one that has meaning to the admissions officers of a college.

The changes in the composition of the high-school population since the beginning of the century plus the changes in educational philosophy of the secondary school have not been reflected in a change in the basic marking system. The selectivity of the early high school with its single purpose of college preparation called for one type of mark. The present day high school which enrolls over 85 per cent of high-school-age boys and girls has called for a different type of marking system, but up to now we have been unable to break tradition and accept a system more in keeping with the situation as it now exists.

The sensible solution to our problem is a dual marking system. One phase of the evaluation would be for the pupil and parent whereas the other would be for college recommendation. However, the sensible solution is not always the practical one. In our present way of thinking, we worship the academic for *all* pupils even though they are not all in possession of a high academic aptitude. Even the parents think in terms of this academic achievement. The only practical solution to the dual marking system is parent-teacher conferences. This appears to be the best possible way of reporting pupil progress to parents and the elementary school is using it most effectively. However, the secondary school has been very reluctant to really organize this device in such a way that it can be used in the departmentalized organization. It has been done most effectively in a number of high schools and eventually more schools will see its value. However, this is another story; the problem before us now is basically that of a college predictive mark.

A factor causing difficulty in the college predictive mark is the rank in class which is tied to the outmoded concept of the Carnegie Unit. This unit is based on the idea that equal time in class is worth equal credit regardless of the content of the course. It is an easy concept to administer, but we all know it is educationally unsound. The result has been that many able boys and girls have loaded themselves with low standard courses so they could amass a higher grade point. Enrollment in an honors course could effect their rank in class and thus their chances for college admission.

Actually, our discussion here is to look at a method of giving more weight to the difficult academic course so that a "B" in the honors course would count as much or perhaps more than an "A" in a regular course. Of course this plan could be carried to the extent that the content of *every* course would be evaluated so that there would be relationship between the difficulty of the course and the weight given to it on establishing grade point. We know this would be impractical and none of us would be able to work out a plan acceptable to our faculties or patrons.

The plan of weighting grade points for *honors* courses does have some merit. However, we must recognize that it also has limitations. Personally, I feel that, as an interim measure, it may be usable but, in the final analysis, we should be looking for a completely new structure for our marking system that is totally in keeping with the situation as it now exists in our schools.

Summary of the presentation made by ALBERT F. MERZ, JR.

THIS is indeed a thorny problem. Perhaps one should also raise the question as to whether or not student marks in honors courses should be weighted at all. In order to get a broader viewpoint as to the problem itself and some possible solution, I developed a questionnaire; with points pertinent to the topic, concerning practices in this area. Replies to the questionnaire which I sent out in December of 1960 to a number of school districts in the greater New York area, plus a few to selected school systems in upper New York State, indicate that high schools in 57 of the 65 school districts answering offer honors courses.

Of these 57 schools, 22 schools weight the grades in some manner. Four of these schools weight grades by multiplying them by a certain factor. Twelve of the schools add a specific number of points to the honors grades. Fifty-four of the schools identify grades in honors courses on the permanent record card. Fifty-five identify grades in honors courses on the college transcript. Only 10 of the 65 feel that students tend to avoid Advanced Placement and honors courses because of qualms about getting low grades, and only 18 believe that participation in Advanced Placement or honors courses adversely affects a student's rank in class. Eighteen indicate that some adjustment is made in class rank for students in Advanced Placement or honors courses, while 39 do not.

At Nyack High School, we are currently reviewing this problem. While doing so, I came across a statement issued jointly by the Ivy League men's colleges concerning college admission procedures. This statement emphasizes the need of these schools to know how the rank in class is

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computed, which courses are included, what period covered, who is included, and, particularly, *what weight is given to honors or advanced courses.*

In the 1958-59 school year, the New York State Association of College Admission Deans and Guidance Personnel in a questionnaire poll, reviewed replies from 113 schools. One hundred two replied that they made no provision for special marks for students in accelerated or special groups. Nine said that they did. Some of these schools had special write ups describing the classes, others labeled the courses "honors" on transcripts and permanent record cards.

It would seem on the basis of these limited findings that most of the schools in the area surveyed now offer honors courses and that for the most part they do not weight grades. Most of these schools identify honors course grades on permanent record cards and college transcripts and also provide descriptions of honors courses to college admissions counselors.

Very few schools feel that students' rank in class is negatively affected by honors course grades, while most of the schools that do so feel make some adjustment in class rank for students in these courses.

Since some college admissions officers put great weight on rank in class lists, perhaps a system of weighting honors grades, for rank in class purposes, should be adopted, especially if you feel your honors students' rank in class standing is being adversely affected and their admission to college is being threatened.

The question of weighting these grades should be decided on the basis of what is best for all your students over a long period of time. A true picture of a student's worth as compared with others is what we are after. At any rate, a full and accurate description of what we are doing should be made available to college admissions officers and others concerned with these matters.

Summary of the presentation made by JAMES M. PEEBLES

THIS problem is somewhat different at the junior high- than it is at senior high level where the demands for college transcript information including rank in class, honor roll, and the like make it necessary to discover some way to protect the superior student while at the same time provide him with a challenging curriculum. Honors groups are created in the junior high school as a result of homogeneous grouping and as an outgrowth of high-school subjects being introduced at the junior high-school level.

James M. Peebles is Principal of Wellesley Junior High School, Wellesley, Massachusetts. Enrollment, 1,260.

At Wellesley Junior High School, the seventh grade is organized into sixteen class sections; five of them are accelerated, three are what might be termed remedial, and the remaining eight are average. Eighth- and ninth-grade students are placed individually according to subject. Obviously those youngsters with superior ability are grouped together and form what might very well be considered an honors section.

The offering of subjects usually identified within the curriculum of the senior high school makes it very necessary that guidance counselors and others concerned with pupil program planning properly identify those boys and girls who are ready for advanced courses. In order that these people achieve successful results in senior high school, it becomes necessary to provide preparation by means of special instruction in junior high school prior to the taking of the specific honors course later. In grade 9 there is one class section of advanced Music Theory, Composition and Painting, Biology I, World History I, Algebra 1 and 2, French, Latin and English. Since the pupils placed in these groups represent the most able students, their permanent records and report cards should confirm this. These young people work hard and accept A's and B's as reward for their accomplishments. We do not feel that they should be "punished" for having been selected for these challenging classes. Of course, it would defeat the purpose if the same material were taught to these sections as well as to the remaining groups of the class. And, of course, when you offer more challenging material, the results tend to vary and the distribution of marks may cover some range of achievement. The instructors transcribe the actual results of this class work into A's and B's on the report card.

Most of the junior high schools I contacted share approximately the same philosophy. However, there are some other plans in effect. One school I questioned marks according to the relative achievement within the group with marks ranging all the way from failure to honors, the feeling being that since the pupils are taking these courses at least a year in advance, they all wouldn't necessarily be doing A and B work. This same school groups in English; one section emphasizing literature, another developmental reading, and the third group receiving remedial instruction. The pupils' English marks in all sections are indicated by numerals only—1, 2, or 3 representing various levels of effort. No attempt is made to mark achievement. I have a couple of samples of this English report card should anyone desire to see one.

Another school labels the course taken on the report card whether it be advanced math, Illinois math, regular math, or remedial math which they call "modified." The youngsters are marked on a full range according to their achievement within the specific group. The principal believes that parents today appear to understand and accept grouping. There has been no adverse criticism in connection with the marking policy.

One school groups homogeneously in grades 7 and 8. These pupils are marked according to their achievement in relation to the others within

the class section. However, the marks of the pupils in the superior group are adjusted upward when recorded on permanent records. The final report card mark is also adjusted so that, at the end of the year, the pupil learns his rating in relation to all the pupils within a particular grade. In grade nine of this school, pupils are grouped but are marked on a theoretical grade standard with no attempt at weighting of marks.

It does appear that once more in education we have a topic about which there can be much debate with excellent arguments supporting the varying opinions.

WHAT'S AHEAD IN THE COLLEGE ADMISSIONS SCRAMBLE?

CHAIRMAN: *F. M. Peterson*, Superintendent, Community High School, Pekin, Illinois

INTERROGATORS:

Arthur P. O'Mara, Principal, Lane Technical High School, Chicago, Illinois

William W. Rodgers, Principal, High School, Madison, New Jersey

E. B. Weaver, Principal, High School, Topeka, Kansas

Summary of the presentation made by EUGENE S. WILSON

THE admission scramble is on—so much so that America's media for mass communication have alerted the public to the problem by such words and phrases as "closing college doors," "tidal wave of students," "crisis in admission," "chaos in admission," *etc., etc.*, and the forecast for the future is more of the same—much more. Everyone now knows that college-bound students do face a problem.

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

This problem has two parts called "A" and "B." Part "A" is well documented, often discussed and debated, and known to students, parents, and college counselors. This is the problem of too many qualified candidates applying to the same colleges. Each year this problem becomes greater as more and more colleges join the ranks of institutions with competitive admission.

Though no satisfactory solution to part "A" has been discovered, part "A" is not so serious as it seems. This part of the problem solves itself—without anxiety and annoyance to many students, parents, and principals—for most rejected candidates do obtain admission to institutions with educational opportunities.

Eugene S. Wilson is Dean of Admission, Amherst College, Amherst, Massachusetts.

Part "B" of our problem is much more serious and destructive, in my opinion, and, paradoxically, it is only rarely recognized and even more rarely discussed. This is the problem of too many unqualified students entering our four-year colleges and universities.

Our society has so inflated the value (most often in economic and social terms) of a college degree that students, regardless of interest or qualification, believe their whole future depends on their obtaining a college degree. *Part "B"* is highlighted by attrition figures which indicate that more than 50 per cent of entering students fail to finish their college education. Discussion of *part "B"* is almost impossible for emotions rise and words like, "unpatriotic," "undemocratic," "intellectual snobbery," and "playing god" flash through the debate.

EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM

Part "A" of our problem (over application to a few colleges) exists, at the moment, mostly in the East and in a few colleges scattered throughout the country. By 1965, however, many additional institutions of higher learning will feel this pressure.

Part "B" of our problem is ubiquitous. No school, regardless of size, can escape the subtle pressures society places on all students to go to a four-year college or university.

THE SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEM

The solution has many facets but these three are primary: (1) stop talking about good and poor, prestige and non-prestige colleges, and talk instead about educational opportunities in all institutions of higher learning; (2) stop making first-class citizens out of students with top marks and test scores—stop all talk which suggests that the only gifted and talented youth are those with high IQ's; and (3) help all students to realize that their success and happiness depends on only one thing—the full development of their individual interests and talents, whether this development takes place in a two- or four-year college, in general education or a training program, whether in an occupation that requires work with the mind or work with the hands.

Summary of the presentation made by EDWIN B. KEIM

THE college admissions scramble, like so many problems currently besetting mankind, is not a crisis in the true meaning of the word. It will not pass in a year or two. The college admissions scramble is one of those things with which we must learn to live. It is true that some new colleges will appear, others will expand facilities, and enrollment

Edwin B. Keim is Principal of Cheltenham Township Senior High School, Wyncote, Pennsylvania. Enrollment, 1,350.

and the junior college movement may well be accelerated. All of these measures will be of help, but will do little more than keep us abreast of the problem.

Some of the effects of the college scramble are not undesirable. It is well to emphasize them, as the negative effects have already been given wide publicity.

The problem is having a definite impact upon the faculties of those high schools which send large numbers of students to college. The effects have been, for the most part, salubrious. Teachers are taking a new and refreshing look at content and methods. The pace in the classroom has been quickened. Education has acquired a new importance and good teaching has become a valued service. Secondary education is receiving a searching evaluation and, as a result, much curriculum revision is taking place.

The impact of "the college scramble" has had some negative effects upon some facets of the program of studies. Students are less willing to take those subjects not bearing the name of "solid," and, as a result, electives in art and music are losing some students. This is regrettable as these subjects have much to offer some students. Much is lost when a student who has given three or four years to a musical instrument refuses to continue in the school orchestra because of a desire to carry five "solids" including two languages.

On the whole, however, the effect of "the college scramble" upon the teacher and the program of studies is good.

The problem upon which we are focusing our attention has had both good and bad impact upon the student. The high-school student today is more completely motivated because of the college problem. He desires to excel. Mastery of subject matter is an urgent concern. The high-school student today, however, is too concerned with grades earned and class rank. He is less relaxed. He is probably not enjoying his high-school years as much as they were enjoyed by those of us who were in high school twenty-five years ago. Putting it briefly, "the college scramble" has made the present high-school student more tense and less likely to follow his natural interests and inclinations, if they will not contribute, in his judgment, to his high-school record and to his chances of college admission.

The parent perhaps has suffered more than any other individual because of "the college admissions scramble." Possible exceptions are the college admissions officer and the high-school principal. However, the plight of these two luckless persons needs separate study of a most sympathetic nature.

The parent of the modern high-school student spends his day in frustration and his nights in quiet dread, unless, of course, he is the fortunate progenitor of the straight "A" student who is perfectly adjusted in the rising storm of competition. The parent must encourage, bribe, and threaten his child to maximum achievement, and at the same time maintain the image of a kind and loving father or mother. While the plight

of many parents today is not to be envied, some benefits have resulted for the school. Education has taken on new importance in many homes. The parents are seeking a closer partnership with the school. The advice of the counselor is being more frequently sought and more readily accepted.

The "college admissions scramble" is with us and has brought in its train some good and some regrettable effects. It is here, and is here to stay for a considerable time. We will probably all be seeking admission into a higher and, we hope, a more pleasant school before the storm abates. We can only hope that when that time comes, as it must come to all of us, we shall meet a kindly dean of admissions.

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT A. MARTIN

MUSHROOMING problems of college admissions invite opportunistic solutions destined to plague us. As never before, principals need to be informed and alert to significant trends. The following remarks are not to be accepted blindly, but used to stimulate thinking.

Secondary schools will be increasingly ensnared in the tangled web of non-uniform admissions practices. Upper middle-class suburban schools, understandably seeking the support of their anxiety-ridden patrons, will continue to set the patterns that other schools ultimately will be forced to follow.

College guidance will receive priority and demand expertness. The educational guidance counselor will become in practice a college placement officer whose success may well determine the fate of his principal. The successful counselor will acquire an intimate and detailed knowledge of colleges throughout the nation. He will beat the bushes seeking less well-known institutions that will accept his borderline college-capable graduate. Through campus tours and meetings with college admissions people, he will acquire valuable contacts and advertise his school to improve its rating. He will maintain elaborate files of information to help him match students to colleges.

The counselor increasingly will become the agent of colleges, doing their leg-work preliminary to selection of freshman classes. As students and parents visit campuses in overwhelming numbers, colleges will restrict visits to certain "high-school days" and provide group rather than individual counseling. They will refuse to support college nights. College representatives will visit high schools, not to talk to students, but to orient the counselor, who will transmit the information only to qualified students.

Robert A. Martin is Principal of Mariemont High School, Mariemont, Ohio. Enrollment, 700.

To minimize public relations problems, the counseling program will place upon the parent and student the fundamental responsibility for qualifying for admission. Counseling with parents will increase greatly as schools report accumulated predictive data. Growing numbers of prosperous and anxious parents will place their children in private schools to ensure round-the-clock supervision for academic excellence. To retain the support of patrons, public schools will establish higher performance standards for students and staff.

The rising school standards, the growing selectivity of private colleges, the continuation of our current concern for the gifted kick, and the increasing reliance of colleges upon the school's recommendations will bring us a serious public relations problem with parents of average but college capable children.

Admission testing will mushroom until universally practiced. To limit enrollments and mitigate unfairnesses in the use of rank-in-class, state universities will adopt testing. The trend will be to test achievement—not facts memorized, but developed abilities in using fundamental knowledge. Testing programs will avoid direct influence over the curriculum.

Colleges, while showing genuine concern for the problem admissions present to schools, inevitably will call the turn. Their schedules will call for achievement tests in May of the junior year for admission and May of the senior year for placement, and for aptitude testing in the spring of the junior year or the fall of the senior year. Rolling admissions will be practiced by all but the most prestigious institutions.

The multiple application problem, no longer controllable by good guidance, will necessitate a new solution, probably a centralized matching plan service. Associated with this may be a prediction service. Using prediction formulas, data supplied on college application forms will be fed into computers and translated into probabilities of success in specific colleges.

As tuitions rise and college doors shut, public clamor for community junior colleges will bring them into existence, despite delay by vested interests arguing over the issue of local *vs.* state university control. Until this advent of community colleges, the web of admissions problems will get more tangled, more frustrating, and more fraught with public relations hazards for principals.

HOW CAN FACULTY MEETINGS CONTRIBUTE TO PROFESSIONAL GROWTH?

CHAIRMAN: *J. W. Hackett*, Assistant Principal, Central High School, Louisville, Kentucky

INTERROGATORS:

Wilmer F. Bennett, Principal, Theodore Roosevelt High School, Washington, D. C.

Joseph Newell, Principal, High School, Bryan, Ohio

J. T. Williams, Principal, Carver High School, Gadsden, Alabama

Summary of the presentation made by OTTO HUGHES

IT HAS been suggested that my discussion be limited to current practices in an Indiana High School. The faculty meetings referred to occurred in a high school with an enrollment of approximately 750 students in grades 7-12, and a faculty of 60 members. It is located on the campus of Indiana University and serves as a laboratory for the School of Education. Plans for a new school plant provided an excellent opportunity to direct the entire staff in the re-evaluation of the high-school curriculum with a view to adapting it to the needs of high-school pupils in a new environment.

At the first faculty meeting in September, the faculty voted to devote as much time as necessary to the study of the present curricular offerings and to recommend whatever changes were deemed appropriate. Although the entire staff was involved in this study, a chairman and a committee from the teaching personnel were selected to assume the responsibility for the procedures that were to be followed, and were called the curriculum planning committee. The chairman of the English department was chosen chairman of the planning committee.

Inasmuch as the faculty was organized on a departmental basis, each department agreed to make a self-evaluation of the curricular offerings in each department. The teachers established the order in which each department would make its report to the whole faculty. Each department chairman not only agreed to spend as much time as necessary in the self-evaluation process, but also made a report to the entire faculty of the results of the departmental evaluation and recommendations for change in the curriculum when such changes were deemed feasible.

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Otto Hughes is Director of the Division of University Schools, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

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example, the faculty member whose major interest was health and physical education participated in the study of the health and physical education program.) Several faculty members made significant contributions to many of the departmental meetings.

Since the staff was committed to the completion of this project within the school year of nine months, it soon became quite evident that the scope of the task would require much more time than the customary bi-weekly faculty meetings and the regular departmental meetings that were held alternately with the regular faculty meetings. The first department to report to the faculty of the whole spent many extra hours preparing its report, since the time limitation imposed upon it was not true of the departments that were to report later in the school year.

The departmental reports were based upon consideration of such items as: courses required for graduation by the State Department of Education in Indiana; and electives to be of value to the pupils as a part of their general background of experiences with emphasis upon the academic phase of the course offerings, since approximately seventy five per cent, on the average, of the graduates continued their formal education beyond high-school graduation.

A critical analysis was made by the faculty of the recommendations presented by the departmental chairman. The reports themselves became an excellent in-service training device since all faculty members were given the opportunity to raise questions and make suggestions following each report. After the entire faculty had had the opportunity to hear the reports and criticize them, they were submitted to the planning committee for editing and mimeographing.

Without belaboring the detailed procedures that formed a part of the work of the faculty for the entire year, there are certain observations that assist in identifying this project with the subject of this paper. In the first place, instead of devoting the entire time of the regular faculty meetings to routine administrative matters, the time was spent in making the faculty meetings meaningful. Secondly, considerable professional growth resulted in the process of curriculum re-evaluation. As expressed by several faculty members, they became familiar with the offering in other departments, thus broadening their understanding of the entire program of the school. Furthermore, the entire faculty was engaged collectively in a program that was not only meaningful, but was also very functional and appropriate to the work that they were requested to do the following year. When the building specialist asked the departmental chairman and other staff members to provide information concerning the curriculum, they were in a position to interpret their needs objectively as a result of the self-evaluative process in which they had participated.

The curriculum planning committee published a brochure as the final step in the procedure. This publication fulfilled a definite need as the building plans took shape.

The above explanation of an attempt to make teachers' meetings an avenue through which professional growth may take place is only one example of a particular procedure. Many secondary-school principals make use of other devices of equal significance, but this one was adaptable to a particular situation at a specific time and proved to be valuable in a given location.

Summary of the presentation made by ORVILLE KORN

THE fact that the topic for discussion today has been on the agenda of most of our national and many of our state conventions of principals and administrators is evidence that it is a problem that confronts many administrators. Teaching adults to participate in a democratic discussion is one of the hardest things that an administrator has to do and something that is difficult for teachers to learn. They are accustomed to directing discussions, asking questions, and evaluating responses, but fail to learn to be cooperative and understanding participants.

If faculty meetings are to promote professional growth in our staff, they must be cooperatively planned by the principal and his staff—meetings that the teachers will feel are worth while and stimulating and not just some more meetings in an already over-crowded schedule, something to be endured. The attitude of the teachers depends on planning and participation.

There is no panacea for a faculty meeting that will work in any school. Each principal must plan with his faculty the type that is best for his school. Our faculty meetings are scheduled regularly the first Monday of each month. School is out at 3:30, we start at 3:45 and close at 4:30 or 4:45. A regular meeting date, a starting time, and a stopping time are important. Teachers have other appointments to meet later in the day. Teachers should not be expected to change their plans to attend a faculty meeting called on short notice by the principal. We meet in the cafeteria when the weather is warm; it is air conditioned. Other meetings during the year may be in the reading room of the library or the faculty room. By meeting in the library, the librarian has an excellent opportunity to display and call attention to new books and materials recently added. Coffee and cold drinks are served at the beginning of the meeting. This helps to relieve tensions and fatigue, and sets a sociable tempo for the meetings.

Each meeting must have a purpose or reason. We don't have a theme or topic for a given number of meetings. The purpose of each meeting depends on the problems arising during the month and suggestions made

Orville Korn is Principal of Alva Senior High School, Alva, Oklahoma. Enrollment, 334.

by faculty members. Current policies of the school or the community may be a part of the meeting. The main purpose of any faculty meeting is to improve the program of the school in its many areas.

A well-planned meeting and a cooperatively built agenda are a must if a faculty meeting is to contribute anything to the professional growth of teachers. The items on the agenda may be determined in a number of various ways, depending on the number of faculty members involved. We have 18 members with an enrollment of 334 students. I see and talk with nearly every member each day. I ask for suggestions and they feel free to suggest items for discussion. If the question is a concern of three or more members, it is placed on the agenda. If the question can be dealt with better in some other way, it is not discussed at the meeting. Purely personal problems have no place in a faculty meeting, but they are hard to keep out. In the best-planned meetings, petty grievances may creep in occasionally.

The entire time allotted faculty meetings should not be devoted to discussion of school and faculty problems. We use approximately half of each meeting for reports by faculty members and committee reports.

Several years ago, I started placing *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* in the faculty room, with certain articles marked for their attention. Some teachers would read the articles, but many did not. By having faculty members make short reports on articles from *THE BULLETIN*, we have increased the interest and use to the extent that the copies have a used appearance.

Last year we started using the Arthur C. Croft Professional Growth publications in the same way. Teachers don't seem to have the time or take the time to read the professional materials they would like to read. They appreciate the short digests of articles presented in faculty meetings.

To encourage teacher attendance at state and national meetings of their departments, we have them make short reports when they return.

I have mentioned a few of the practices that we use that help us to improve our faculty meetings and to promote professional growth in the staff. There is no simple answer to the problem. Many factors are involved, but no principal can be too far off base if he encourages much teacher participation.

Summary of the presentation made by HERBERT W. WEY

FACULTY meetings, now an American tradition, were conceived as a positive force for teacher and school improvement. But many meetings are hardly more than occasions for making announcements. Very little of a constructive nature results, and the opportunities for educational growth

Herbert W. Wey is Associate Dean of the School of Education, University of Miami, Coral Gables 46, Florida.

offered by these meetings are lost. If the faculty meeting is to be a potent force for educational growth, careful planning and thorough study are required. The suggestions which follow are intended to help improve the meetings of teachers of a single unit or school.

1. Arrange for *most* meetings to be planned by a representative committee of teachers around a vital problem. The principal should not suppose or seem to suppose that he is the fount of all ideas.

2. *There should be a felt need by a majority of the staff before any topic is chosen for study.* Start with the immediate problems of teachers, no matter how insignificant you feel these problems are. Use these problems to guide teachers into a study of more important problems.

3. If possible, a central *theme* for all faculty meetings during any one year should be agreed upon and each meeting should render constructive cumulative service so that there is unity in the year's program, with something definite accomplished by the end of the year.

4. In order that each teacher may come prepared to participate intelligently in the procedures of the meeting, *an agenda should be released well in advance of the meeting and supplemented with a summary of issues and recommendations involved.*

5. At times it might be advisable to break up the total faculty into working committees or into the different departmental groups. If this is done, one person from each committee or group should serve on an over-all planning or steering committee.

6. Meetings should be conducted by classroom teachers, heads of departments, supervisors, and administrators. The administrator should usually sit in as a member of the faculty and avoid dominating meetings.

7. Meetings should be planned for the most convenient time and held in a place that will give the proper atmosphere to type of meeting being held; for example, a meeting on library usage or curriculum improvement might be held in the library.

8. Meetings should be avoided during the peak work periods of the faculty, unless the meetings are a means of helping teachers do better the work they are doing at that time. For example, when teachers are in the process of recording information, a meeting might be held on the topic of recording and interpreting individual pupil data.

9. Teachers must be encouraged to participate freely and actively under the alert guidance of the program leader. Everyone should feel free to ask questions and to discuss his work and problems.

10. Endeavor to get everyone to make a contribution to the meeting. Have someone serve as an observer who assists the chairman in distributing the contributions and to make a brief report at the close of the meeting on the distribution of participation.

11. *A record of proceedings, showing what was said and what action was taken,* should be prepared and filed. Also a record of conclusions

reached and policies formed by the group should be mimeographed and distributed to all concerned.

12. Do not use faculty meetings as a means of trying to upgrade or correct the faults of two or three teachers.

13. Use faculty meetings to help teachers do better those things they will have to do anyway; for example, a meeting in the library for the purpose of developing lesson plans that correlate the use of library materials, a meeting at the end of the first month to help teachers learn how to make monthly reports, a meeting on test item preparation which results in teacher preparation of unit tests, a meeting to discover and order free and inexpensive teaching materials, a meeting in library to evaluate library holdings and build order for books for the next year, etc. Experienced teachers can act as group instructors for the new and inexperienced teachers.

14. *Have workshop type of meeting wherein the faculty spends three or four meetings working on the construction of teaching aids or in developing resource units.*

15. An excellent faculty meeting is one which allows teachers to share their teaching techniques and talents with the other members of the staff.

16. Policy forming meetings should be closed with a summary of what has been agreed on, and each teacher should have an opportunity to make corrections, express reservations, etc.

17. The attitudes of teachers should indicate that the meeting aroused interest which will lead to further study and better teaching. A tape recording of the group meeting and an analysis of the recording will help improve meetings.

HOW MUCH ABILITY GROUPING FOR STUDENTS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Martha R. Finkler*, Assistant Superintendent, Division of Junior High Schools, New York City Public Schools, Brooklyn, New York

INTERROGATORS:

Joseph J. Rousseau, Principal, Walker Junior High School, Bradenton, Florida

Paul Sparks, Principal, Coultrap Junior High School, Geneva, Illinois

Lewis M. Thompson, Principal, Bryan Station Junior High School, Lexington, Kentucky

Summary of the presentation made by CLARENCE H. SPAIN

THE problem of grouping students to facilitate the instructional program is not new. In 1818 Boston established an infant school and the first major grouping of students for instruction was achieved. Later, around the first part of this century, I can remember when a rural locality would take great pride in the establishment of a *graded* elementary school, because grouping students by grades was in accord with the best educational thought at that time. This system seemed to work very well for those who had the ability and chose to stay with it. However, as times changed and the idea got abroad that all students should remain in school, at least through the secondary program, the simple process of grouping by grades seemed to fall apart. Further grouping by ability in the upper secondary grades would be required to meet the educational needs of all, especially the nonacademic who were forced by law to attend.

After World War I, when many returning soldiers were unable to find suitable employment it was thought that we had been neglecting vocational education in our high schools, so we began a process of grouping students for vocational aptitudes. In the twenties and early thirties, a school that ignored ability groupings for either academic or vocational purposes was thought to be a second-rate school. Education, like democracy, thrives on criticism. And there was a movement, called Progressive Education, that had its quiet beginning in the early twenties. It became very audible in the thirties when the depression got deeper and deeper and when every American tradition was under severe criticism. World War II brought cessation to the arguments of the traditionalists for moderate homogeneous grouping and the "progressives" for individualized instruction in heterogeneous groups. Winning the war brought a general feeling of smugness and satisfaction with the *status quo*.

Clarence H. Spain is Principal of the Binford Junior High School, Richmond, Virginia. Enrollment, 560.

The Progressive Education movement died and all seemed quiet on the educational front except those that had acute educational auditory nerves. And for these the rumblings were clearly discernible in the early fifties, becoming louder and with greater frequency, until in October 1957 when a "new moon" began orbiting our earth, the educational rumblings burst forth in a deafening crescendo. The educational lines of contention were drawn exactly as before, but the names of the contending parties have changed. For example, Caswell and Foshay in their book, *Education in the Elementary School*, state that the position one takes on ability grouping depends largely on how one feels about the nature of the individual and about the purposes of education. They state:

If one views the curriculum as pretty much predetermined—he will favor ability grouping—if one holds that uniformity of ability and achievement are desirable, he will support ability grouping. In contrast if one believes diversity and uniqueness are essentials and that differences are fostered by education, he will consider ability grouping unsound. If one views the democratic process as one which permits the able to rise through their individual efforts to positions of power and leadership, and which conditions the less able to acceptance of such leadership, he will support ability grouping. However, if the democratic process is considered one in which real respect for the personality of every person is basic, with leadership resting on the participation of all and shifting from situation to situation, ability grouping will not be accepted. (p. 339)

Maxine Mann, Research Assistant in the State University of Iowa, writing in the June 1960 *Overview*, said that the strongest arguments against ability grouping are based on research, while the strongest arguments for it are based on intuition. So now instead of the Progressives *versus* the Traditionalists, we have the Researchers *versus* the Philosophers.

The Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1960 edition, states, "Perhaps the most controversial issue of classroom organization in recent years is whether or not students of like ability should be grouped together for instructional purposes. . . . Studies of ability grouping in subject areas such as English, geometry, history, Latin, and algebra contradict each other, and results swing toward ability grouping only when content is enriched." (Pages 223, 224).

Grouping of students is only a part of the picture. The newest ideas on improving instruction include the grouping of teachers. The name that has sprung up in our literature to cover this latter phase of grouping is called "team" teaching. The movie, *And No Bells Ring*, and the writings of J. Lloyd Trump might lead you to conclude that "team" teaching is strictly for secondary schools. However, this type of teaching is being tried in a large number of elementary schools. And the reason I bring this up now is that these experiments "challenge certain widely held theories about the bases of pupil security and the ways children adjust to different adult personalities" as stated in Goodland and Anderson's book, *The Ungraded Elementary School* (Harcourt Brace '59). In fact, these "philosophers" are so optimistic about the adaptability of children

and the emotional toughness of children, that they are recommending grouping by departmentalization not only in the secondary schools, but all the way down into the middle and even to the lower of the elementary grades.

As I get it, the idea of the "philosophers" is to fix it so the bright child can be properly challenged so that we will not lose or fail to develop the potential of our brighter children. To my great surprise the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (1960, p. 224) states, "The evidence, of limited value as indicated above slightly favors ability grouping in regard to academic achievement, with dull children seeming to profit more than bright children in this regard."

For a useful summary of problems of grouping I refer you to an article in the April 1960 *Phi Delta Kappan* by the new dean of the School of Education at Indiana University, Dr. Harold G. Shane. There he states ten general problems of grouping, annotates thirty-two grouping plans some of which have been discarded, others modified or gradually accepted on a widespread scale. Dr. Shane concluded his exhaustive study in this article as follows:

It seems reasonable to conclude that the "best" grouping procedures are likely to differ from one school to another, the most desirable practice often being dependent upon such factors as: (1) the competence and maturity of the local staff; (2) the nature of the physical plant; (3) school size; (4) class size; (5) the local curriculum or design of instruction; and (6) a highly intangible quality—the intensity of the desire of a teacher or a group of teachers to make a particular plan work effectively. The philosophy and ability of the able teacher are undoubtedly more important than any grouping plan, however, ingenious it may be, with respect to creating a good environment for teaching and learning.

We may conclude, therefore, that any school plan, of whatever kind, if it is created by the people who will work with it, is good. It is good because it will set a standard of thoroughness which the teacher will exact from himself and demand from his students. F. W. Norwood has said, "Life's greatest tragedy is to lose God and not to miss Him." And I say the next greatest tragedy would be for us as school men to have students in our schools whose educational needs are not being met, and for us not to be concerned.

Summary of the presentation made by W. C. ROSS

CENTRAL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL in Kalispell is composed of 268 eighth-grade and 244 seventh-grade students. The eighth-grade and the seventh-grade students are divided into eight divisions each, which makes

W. C. Ross is Principal of Central Junior High School, Post Office Drawer 588, Kalispell, Montana. Enrollment, 512.

a total of sixteen divisions in the school. Our groups average well above thirty in the eighth grade and more than thirty in the seventh grade.

For a number of years we have practiced ability, probably more correctly called achievement, grouping in the junior high school. In the spring of the year, the junior high-school principal goes to the sixth-grade teachers and registers the sixth-grade students for the seventh grade. During the registration, the principal tries to find out as much as he can about each individual student. He is especially interested in the composite achievement test scores, the teachers grades and evaluation of the students' work, and the students' study habits, attitudes, and background. Our better mathematics students will take algebra for high-school credit in the eighth grade (about ten per cent). Therefore, the first group to be selected for the seventh grade will be the students who rank high in mathematics according to the information mentioned above. These students will attempt to do both seventh- and eighth-grade arithmetic during their seventh year.

The next two groups of students to be selected are those who rank high in total achievement. The fourth group is made up of the students who rank lowest in total achievement. In most cases, these are students who should receive special help in arithmetic, reading, spelling, *etc.* The students who are left from the middle of the total group are placed in heterogeneous groups.

At the end of the seventh year, when eighth-grade groups are formed, students who have done very well may be placed in faster groups and those who have done poorly may find themselves in a slower group. We believe that the students with ability who, in many cases are the most retarded, placed in this kind of group situation do a much better job because the pressure to stay with the group is increased, and, also, the teachers and parents naturally expect more of these students.

The surprise seems to be that, under the proper conditions, the students and the parents of the slow learners appreciate the fact that they are competing with their own level and that they are being helped in the areas where they need it most. We put about ten less people in the slow groups; therefore, the teacher can give them more individual attention.

The thing that really makes this whole program work is the fact that the teachers of the slow groups are anxious to do a good job, they enjoy working with these kinds of students, and they have prepared themselves to teach slow learners. Without the right kind of teachers, with proper attitudes, grouping would fail. I am convinced that, when we do ability grouping, our teachers ought to specialize for the various levels, and then administrators ought to place the teachers according to their abilities.

Summary of the presentation made by M. W. HERKNER

ALL schools have some form of grouping. The junior high school itself is a type of grouping. Homogeneous grouping is increasing according to all reports. Many schools have continued the grouping they started fifteen or twenty years ago, but they just did not publicize it because, educationally, grouping was out of vogue. Most schools never abandoned grouping by special ability in certain fields. Orchestras, bands, and choruses are organized according to the musical ability of the pupils. Athletic ability determines placement on the athletic teams.

We must distinguish between segregation and grouping. While the academically gifted or the slow learner must be grouped for academic instruction, they must be integrated in other areas. Our home rooms are not organized according to athletic, musical, or academic aptitude. The heterogeneity of home rooms is insured by our placement of pupils in these groups. Pupils are not segregated for guidance instruction, for student council activities, for intramurals, or for social affairs.

Dr. James B. Conant in his recent report on the junior high school recommends that "instruction be organized to provide intellectual challenge for the whole range of abilities found in a school." He continues by recommending "three groups in the academic courses with the bulk of the pupils in a particular grade in a large middle group." In discussing grouping it is impossible to give any specifics. Within any large school system you will find a deviation of policy. Differences in IQ's in different schools will result in different offerings. As a result, in discussing "how much grouping," it is necessary to speak in general terms.

Just how much grouping for academic instruction shall there be in each school?

1. To the extent that the principal is convinced that ability grouping is good for the pupils of his school. This is no program for the faint-hearted or the principal lacking in backbone. Neither is it a program for the principal who is just following the vogue. The principal must exert real leadership to insure success for this program, and he must also be prepared to say, "no" many times in the initial stages of implementation.

2. To the degree that the staff is prepared for ability grouping. The aim of homogeneous grouping is improved instruction. It implies a constant search for better methods of instruction and better materials for the different groups. Courses of study must be modified to fit the needs of each group. Methods and teaching materials must be adjusted to the abilities of the different groups. Policy must be established on methods of selection, reclassification in case of error, marking, teacher assignment

M. W. Herkner is Principal of Roosevelt Junior High School, Cleveland Heights, Ohio. Enrollment, 890.

and load, and many related problems. The staff, however, must first develop a diversity of curriculum offerings suitable to the various groups established. The staff must be prepared to understand that each group is of necessity a different preparation requiring different teaching techniques. The staff must accept the principle that the teaching assignment with only one to two preparations is impossible with ability grouping.

3. To the amount which the board of education will support ability grouping by providing funds for differentiated materials, for additional sections, and for the smaller groups which will be necessary in some cases. Funds will be needed to provide released time for teachers to prepare curriculum materials. Selected staff members may have to write the necessary materials. There is a scarcity of suitable material for the slower groups. Composition aides may be needed for the top English groups where additional written composition may be necessary. Additional counseling time may be necessary to handle classification problems.

4. To the extent that the attitude of your parents and pupils permit. Parents and pupils must be convinced that their best interests are being served by the challenge of ability grouping. Parents must be enthusiastic to the extent that, through support of levies, they will provide the additional funds needed and to the point where they will accept the additional pressure that will be placed on the child with the accelerated and enriched program. Pupils must be convinced that ability grouping gives all concerned a better opportunity for learning. Ability grouping should be practiced to the extent that it is feasible under the varying local conditions.

HOW TO MEET THE PROBLEM OF THE SLOW LEARNER IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *John A. Stanavage*, Principal, Mount Pleasant Junior High School, Wilmington, Delaware

INTERROGATORS:

Leslie R. Hinds, Principal, Alamo Junior High School, Midland, Texas

Rose L. Schwab, Principal, Stephen A. Halsey Junior High School, Forest Hills, New York

Ronald E. Switzer, Principal, Jennings Junior High School, Akron, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by HOWARD O. BUSKA

MINNESOTA has been very active in the grouping of students according to ability. Special classes are arranged for the low ability student as well as the gifted pupil in many of our schools. Every school system has its own method for identifying the slow learner, but requirements and practices are comparable in all our schools.

The success of the learning program for this basic group, as the slow learner is called in many schools, depends largely on teacher attitude. Attitude is the common denominator of all other qualities and skills one tries to develop in these basic groups. The teacher's choice of subject matter, the desire to improve the student's ability, and the ability to create enthusiastic response in this group are essential requirements of a successful teacher in this program.

This teacher has to be screened from members of our faculties. She has to be self-trained, dedicated to her job, a person who loves youth, and is willing to cooperate with school policies in regard to marking, promotion, and selecting the individual.

How are students selected for the basic group? We find many methods, but the most common are: (1) teacher identification on the basis of achievement, grades, and class performance; (2) counselor's report on all tests and conferences that are available; (3) conference of teachers, counselors, and principals to determine what student is to be placed in the basic group; (4) parent's consent after proper conferences in some cases; and (5) the class not being a place to unload discipline cases, but rather a place where the students who want to study and learn can advance at a slower rate than the regular classes. This class should be so organized as to challenge the slow learner.

If we, as junior high-school principals and teachers, want to help the slow learner we must develop some of the following attitudes: (1) We

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must accept the slow learner as part of our school systems. It is estimated that in many communities the slow learner numbers as many as 5 to 20 per cent. We must realize that many behavior problems in this group arise from their inability to meet the demands placed upon them in the regular class room. (2) The slow learner must learn the need to respect himself and accept both the teacher and the school. Much more emphasis must be placed on what he can do rather than what he cannot do. (3) The slow learner must be accepted by his family. This requires conferences with his parents to explain the child's capabilities. (4) The curriculum must be adjusted to fit the pupil's needs. The teacher must vary her presentation in order to captivate the interest of the slow learner. She must be alert to any special interests or abilities of the slow learner and help to develop these assets. The teacher's goal should include the development of the social maturity of the child in order to help him find his place in society.

A function of the junior high school is to offer both the appropriate course and the social and vocational guidance leading to satisfactory adult life in the community. Since slow learners tend to marry early, courses for them should deal with home management, grooming practices, child care, budget procedures, letter writing, good work habits, job responsibilities, and acceptance of supervision.

Since the junior high school is rarely the termination of the pupil's education, the slow learner must acquire the skills and content which he will have to use in the senior high school. The compulsory school attendance law in Minnesota requires a student to attend school until he is sixteen years of age; therefore, many of these slow learners will complete one or two years of senior high school and many will even be graduated.

These slow learners will make real progress along the road of good citizenship if they are treated with respect and given responsibilities within their capacities by a friendly, loving teacher who tries to understand their problems.

Summary of the presentation made by M. EDWARD NORTHAM

THE term "slow learner" has been applied in educational literature and by practical schoolmen to many kinds of students. Orthogenic backward, low mental capacity, and under-achievers—these have all been classified as "slow learners." This report is specifically concerned with two kinds of students—those who have an IQ above 75 and below 95; and those who

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are "slow learners" because of reasons other than a low mental capacity; i.e., emotional, social, and even attitudinal factors. It has been estimated that these groups constitute twenty per cent of all school students. Because of their number and their mental limitations, these "slow learners" present a real challenge to the school and its instructional program.

"Slow learners" differ from average students in several significant ways. First, because of limitations in general intelligence, the "slow learner" makes only five-sixths normal progress in learning. Thus a six-year-old entering *first* grade is already one year behind average mental growth and in six years he will have attained a mental age of only ten years—as he enters junior high school. *Second*, there is a difference in the quality of the learning process. Abstract and conceptual problems tax him beyond his comprehension and leave him confused. They are weak in powers of concentration and exhibit a shorter span and a narrower scope of attention. *Third*, there is a difference in health and physical characteristics. Defects of speech, hearing, and vision are frequent, while physical coordination and stamina are noticeably below par.

A realistic instructional program for these students must emphasize the development of good work habits, attitudes, and a desire to make worth-while contributions to the community. Specifically, we suggest two blocks of subjects. One of them should encompass communication; i.e., oral English, reading, and spelling; and the other should include mathematics, science, and social studies. In addition to these blocks of subjects, we suggest that from one third to one half of the student's day should be scheduled in physical education, practical arts, music, and art crafts. For the most part, these should be on an elective or selectively assigned basis. This program must be augmented with definite classes taught by such trained personnel as the dental hygienist, school nurse, guidance counselor—all under the supervision of an interested and competent guidance counselor.

The entire program for the "slow learner" is strengthened as the school is able to enlist the cooperative action of many staff members rather than delegating the responsibility to one or two specially trained teachers. The total program must be sufficiently flexible to fit in with desirable opportunities as they present themselves in the general schedule of classes throughout the school. Attempting to teach these students through life-like experiences and firsthand contact with worth-while activities demands that all teachers work closely together, knowing and understanding the aims, activities, and procedures of each other.

Summary of the presentation made by NELSON L. HAGGERSON

A QUESTIONNAIRE was sent to the principal of each of the sixty-one state-approved junior high schools in New Mexico. Each principal was asked to describe the program in his school for the slow learner, the materials used, and its strengths and weaknesses. Forty-one principals replied. The assessment herein presented is based on interpretation of this survey and observation of some New Mexico junior high schools in operation.

Concepts of and identification of the slow learner. The predominate notion of the slow learner as described by these principals was that he is a poor reader. He was also described as one who has an IQ below 70, and, not so frequently, he was described as having a poor academic background, a complete lack of knowledge of phonics, and a lack of motivation. Depending on the expressed or implied concept of the slow learner, various instruments were reportedly used to identify him. These tools included: ability tests, achievement tests, progress charts, teacher-counselor observations, performance tests, and interest tests.

Programs and materials. Several programs for handling slow learners were prevalently mentioned by New Mexico principals. The most common was a homogeneous grouping based on some particular criterion—generally reading ability. Once in a group, these slow learners are treated in various ways. Some are given the same material as “regular” groups, only more slowly; others are presented with material “at their own level.” Some are placed in self-contained classrooms; others are exposed to a core or block-of-time type program. The latter is mentioned primarily by principals of larger schools. The most prevalently mentioned is the “reading” program for slow learners. The Science Research Associates Reading Kit was the most frequently mentioned material used to assist the slow learner.

Strengths and weaknesses of programs. An opportunity to achieve and “meet his needs” was cited as the strongest aspect of the New Mexico programs. Achievement was reported manifesting itself through achievement tests, through better attitudes, and through a desire to “dig in.” Satisfaction on the part of the teacher was also a desirable outcome.

The lack of competent teachers and the impossibility of reducing class sizes seemed to bother the reporting principals most. They also reported difficulties inherent in scheduling as a prime weakness. The lack of suitable material for the slow learner loomed right along with the paucity of competent and willing teachers as a weakness.

Assessment of practices in New Mexico junior high schools. The returns on the questionnaire and some systematic observations of junior

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high schools in New Mexico seem to allow these conclusions. There is a recognition of the slow learner problem and a definite interest in attacking the problem. While all the principals did not state or imply the same operational definition of the slow learner, they did all agree that one identifying factor is poor reading. In view of this, the established programs are aimed at reading improvement.

The principals are besieged with the many pressures of the present day; *i.e.*, to accelerate the gifted and to improve science, mathematics, language programs, and others. Due to this fact the slow learner is placed in a position where he gets "some" attention but not as much as some principals would like to give him. And yet there are some who say, "We wonder if we are doing the right thing to use valuable time and talent on such a program. . . ." In spite of these adversities added to lack of competent teachers, large classes, and scarcity of (found) materials, the New Mexico junior high schools are making a slow, yet persistent attack on the problems of the slow learner.

CURRICULUM DESIGN—STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF THE TRACK SYSTEM

CHAIRMAN: *H. C. Uhls*, Principal, Aviation High School, Redondo Beach, California

INTERROGATORS:

James S. Collins, Principal, High School, Montclair, New Jersey

Dorothy M. Duval, Principal, Woodbourne Junior High School, Baltimore, Maryland

Otto F. Huettner, Principal, Mary D. Bradford High School, Kenosha, Wisconsin

Summary of the presentation made by T. P. BAKER

THE track system has been with us in some form for twenty-five or thirty years. As high schools become larger and course offerings become broader, and with guidance programs very limited or non-existent a need was present for students to have some direction. The "track plan" resulted. This plan has taken many directions. There are schools who follow only two general plans or tracks; namely, terminal and college preparatory. There are other schools that have many tracks, such as foreign language, physical science, woodworking, drafting, homemaking, stenography, bookkeeping, *etc.* Even here we find a great variation in

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patterns. Some schools have very rigid requirements in each track while others have a few basic requirements with more latitude in electives.

There are several purposes for setting up a track system in the secondary schools. Some of these are: (1) to stress a desirable sequence of subject matter; (2) to be certain that students select subjects most advisable for preparation in specific careers; (3) to provide a type of guidance; and (4) to aid persistence of effort in a given field.

The track system is facing some problems today; it may not be as necessary as it formerly was. More and more state legislatures and state departments of education are becoming more prescriptive in their requirements for graduation from high school. Colleges and universities vary in their entrance requirements, even varying in various departments or colleges with the same university.

Society is demanding a broader core of subjects for all students such as more mathematics, science, social science, and English. The accrediting agencies are setting standards that have some effect.

Today the secondary schools are developing better and more effective guidance programs. The better the guidance program, the less need for a formalized track system. Every pupil has individual needs. The track system that is being developed is more and more an individual one for each pupil depending upon his interests, needs, mental and achievement score, *etc.* Under this system each pupil will meet the legal and regulatory requirements, then follow his own track in completing his high-school program.

At one time we had many formal tracks in the Austin schools, such as pre-law, pre-medicine, foreign language, various vocational, *etc.*, with students grouped in classes according to the track they were in. Now each student follows his own track, meeting legal and regulatory requirements, and is grouped in classes according to mental scores, achievement scores, reading scores, teacher judgment, *etc.* We are convinced that this latter plan is better, but it is dependent upon a well-functioning guidance program.

Summary of the presentation made by SAM H. MOORER

MAJOR current problems in curriculum organization faced by secondary schools stem largely from certain facts on the current scene. These facts are not news to secondary-school principals. We sometimes fail to see, however, the relationship between these facts and problems of organizing the secondary-school curriculum. What are some of these facts and what problems of curriculum organization come from them?

Sam H. Moorer is Director of the Division of Instructional Services, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida.

CURRENT EXPLOSION OF KNOWLEDGE

The experts tell us that the amount of available knowledge is now doubling every ten years. No human can today master any one of the organized disciplines. Yet the educated man of today must be at least dimly aware of all of the major aspects of human knowledge and the processes by which such knowledge is accumulated. We must learn to be much more discriminating in selecting what should be learned and in providing for a higher degree of efficiency in learning it.

THE DEMOCRATIC IDEAL OF PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

I think it could be truthfully said that the curriculum in the secondary school of the last century was vocational for those few who went to high school. The curriculum was vocational in the sense that the subjects offered were considered necessary for those preparing for the learned professions. During the first half of the twentieth century the American people have said quite plainly that they expect all children to get a high-school education. We are still in the process of learning how to provide it.

THE FACT OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Everyone knows that our youth exhibit wide physical, social, cultural, and intellectual differences. Physical differences are apparent to the naked eye. Intellectual differences can now be measured with some degree of precision. We are beginning to be a little more aware of social and cultural differences. It is interesting in this connection to note what Arnold Toynbee says about cultural differences:

One of the most effective privileges hitherto has been the privilege of being heir to a richer cultural heritage than is accessible to the unprivileged majority, and this richer heritage is transmitted through the family as well as through schools and colleges. This becomes apparent when children with a poor cultural heritage are admitted to the minority's schools. They find it difficult to obtain as much benefit as their privileged school fellows obtain from the same course of formal instruction, because they bring less with them.

We have not found final solutions to the problems of curriculum organization which grow from a student body with wide differences of all kinds.

PRESSURES DERIVING FROM OUR FEAR OF COMMUNISM

Some of our most crucial problems arise at this point. There is a great danger that we may cancel out our democracy in our attempts to provide academic excellence through the use of authoritarian procedures. I am sure that, by this time, we are all familiar with the disastrous results of getting too many youngsters into advanced courses, in mathematics and science for example, who we later find, do not belong there and, on the other hand, not getting some into these courses who should be there.

VARIED POINTS OF VIEW REGARDING CONTROLLING PURPOSES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Dean Francis S. Chase of the University of Chicago, says that "One of the crucial issues has to do with where the school should focus its efforts to gain the essential control over the educative process. Some tend to emphasize the psycho-social task while others stress cognitive or intellectual development."

All of the major pronouncements on aims of secondary education up to now have been content to list goals without assigning priorities. We must, it seems to me, face up to the problem of deciding if some of the aims and purposes that might be served by secondary education are more important than others.

INCREASED KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE LEARNING PROCESS

We still operate to a considerable degree as if we seriously believed that learning could be driven, poured, or spoon-fed into the adolescent child. We too often equate teaching with telling. While the last word on learning is certainly not in, a great deal has been learned about learning in the past few years. In order to make intelligent decisions about curriculum organization, secondary-school principals must be aware of what has been learned about learning.

Summary of the presentation made by ROY C. TURNBAUGH

THE superintendent of an elementary school district in Illinois jokingly says that if he can persuade his board of education to resist all changes for a few more years, the district will be in front of everyone. In the atmosphere of change pervading secondary schools at the beginning of the 1960's, there seems to be a lack of awareness that, in the grouping of pupils, the pendulum is swinging back to patterns recommended by Thorndike and Terman before some of today's high-school principals were born.

For example, the superintendent's account in *Atlantic* for November 1960 of the four-track system he has instituted in Washington, D. C., shows considerable awareness of the philosophical assumptions underlying the system; but a reader might well assume that this program is not only new to Washington but a radical innovation in American education.

This would seem to be a good time for educators to review the substantial experience American high schools have accumulated with group-

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ing as reported in an extensive literature, much of it dated about thirty years ago. For the truth is that nearly every high school large enough to have more than one class section in a subject offering at a particular grade level accumulated some experience with grouping by ability. In some of the larger schools the grouping was channelled by "tracks." Some schools used ability tracks, some used functional tracks; most were a combination. Scholastic aptitude and declared educational goals have been the most common determinants of the tracks to which individual pupils have been assigned.

Members of the NASSP do not need to be told that the tracking element in the larger high schools disappeared during the depression and war years much more from terminology than from practice. Particularly in the upper secondary-school years, students could usually count on finding many of the same individuals as classmates from period to period. Nevertheless, the heightened emphasis on quality and achievement are now concentrating more attention on grouping than has been the case for twenty-five years.

The J. Sterling Morton High Schools and Junior College have continuously made extensive use of ability grouping for forty years or more. A very large high school with a concentration of its pupil population somewhat above the mean rather than skewed to either extreme of the aptitude and achievement spectrum, Morton has provided a good environment for testing various grouping methods and their advantages and disadvantages.

Morton has rejected the assignment of a student to the same track in all, or even two, subjects. For required subjects, sectioning students into top quarter, middle half, and bottom quarter groups has worked fairly well. In areas where numbers of students merit it, as in English and mathematics, special remedial sections are used for students at the lowest end of the achievement scale. For the past six years, special honors sections have been used for the top five to ten per cent in mathematics, science, and languages. The Morton staff has confidence in this general approach to grouping which has been improved over two generations and is still being studied and refined. The Morton experience highlights these difficulties inherent in any grouping system:

1. Homogeneity in any group of individuals is a mirage. Teaching must still take account of widely disparate abilities and interests.
2. Measures used for selection and prediction fall short of desired accuracy.
3. Even the same individual has widely different interests and capacities for different aspects even of the same subject.
4. The need for guidance is somewhat changed but not lessened or simplified by grouping.
5. There seems to be some stereotyping effect on both pupils and teachers.
6. The problem of marking, ranking in class, and college prediction is complicated. Study of various "weighting" systems does not convince that they are solutions.

7. The effect of grouping on leadership is still unknown.

8. In other nations, selective grouping has been associated with concentration of educational resources on the top five to fifteen per cent to the neglect of others. The temptation to concentrate more attention and disproportionate resources on selected students appeals just now to influential segments of American society, to each high school, and to each teacher.

The interest in grouping, particularly of the most able pupils, has led to a special legislative appropriation in Illinois for a study in which Morton is participating. We need to find ways to extend the benefits of wise grouping and appropriate curricular organization while elimination or control of disadvantages is accomplished.

WHAT ARE THE MAIN JOBS OF THE PRINCIPAL? HOW CAN HE ACCOMPLISH THEM?

CHAIRMAN: *Charles H. Delano*, Principal, High School, Gorham, Maine

INTERROGATORS:

William E. McBride, Principal, Farragut High School, Chicago, Illinois

Sidney A. Steegers, Principal, Neville High School, Monroe, Louisiana

Marvin T. Vines, Principal, West Jefferson High School, Quinton, Alabama

Summary of the presentation made by AARON BROWN

A MOST remarkable development in American education is in the area of administration, especially the secondary-school principalship. There is a large body of material to support the fact that the high-school principal has played a leading and effective role in bringing the American high school to its present state of prominence. One only needs to consult the writings of such educators as Cubberley, Briggs, Morrison, and Koos to find support for this assertion. Excellent current sources are recent bulletins and yearbooks.

Perhaps, Franklin W. Johnson's *The Administration and Supervision of The High School* published over thirty-five years ago, had the greatest influence in getting educators to realize that "the principal should recognize the improvement of instruction as the most important end to be served." Certainly, Cubberley's great contribution in driving home the relationship of the principal to his school as a leader is indisputable.

Aaron Brown is Project Director of the Phelps-Stokes Fund, 297 Park Avenue South, New York 10, New York.

To me, the most appropriate expression of the best current concepts of the high-school principalship is found in Section "J" of the 1960 edition of *The Evaluative Criteria*.

The principal ought to be a person with a broad background in general education, excellent professional preparation, some successful teaching experience, an appropriate philosophy of education, an understanding of educational needs, and an attitude of professional growth. The principal should know how to get things done—how to perform the day-by-day duties and functions of his position. These include budgeting of time, resources, and personnel. He must be efficient in scheduling, reporting, supervising, and evaluating. The successful principal is the professional leader of the school. He initiates and directs new and better programs, such as curriculum, public relations, better use of instructional materials, *etc.* He is the first to evaluate properly the variety of teaching aids—human, machines, tests, *etc.*

In short, the effective principal must understand the historical background of the position, the present day demands of the principalship, the pressures on the public schools, and the importance of articulation (the elementary school below and the college above). He must be sensitive to the needs of his community and accept the challenges of professional growth.

The principal must lead the way through example in human relations and professional growth. He is an interpreter, leader, coordinator, director, and friend. He must be a person with depth of understanding, an outgoing personality, and a lover of people.

Summary of the presentation made by HAROLD W. WEBER

RECENTLY, a questionnaire was sent to seventy-two principals of senior high schools. The question put to these men was "Will you please list what you consider to be the three main jobs of the secondary-school principal, and then suggest how the job may be accomplished?" Thirty seven (37) replies were received. Tabulation of the replies showed the following results: (Listed are the jobs which were mentioned more than once.)

- | | |
|--|----|
| 1. Teacher supervision—improvement of instruction | 26 |
| 2. Construction of Curriculum and Instruction Programs | 21 |
| 3. Providing educational leadership in establishing school philosophy and objectives | 13 |
| 4. Public relations (including reporting to and conferring with parents) . . | 11 |

Harold W. Weber is Principal of Clinton High School, Clinton, Iowa.

5. Securing adequate staff.....	9
Organization—staff and students for maximum efficiency.....	9
Administration and management.....	9
6. Coordinate curriculum and extracurricular (provide supervision for extracurricular)	8
7. Student registration and schedule building.....	5
8. In-service training	2

An Effective Principal Does Not

1. Neglect constant concern and surveillance of curriculum and instruction program
2. Neglect the teacher in the classroom; the need to visit and supervise for the improvement of instruction
3. Disregard the need for realistic statement of school philosophy and objectives
4. Disregard the importance of balance between curricular, extracurricular programs
5. Become entangled in minute detail; routine procedures handled just as well by office staff
6. Bandy words when faced with a question or a problem
7. Withdraw oneself so as not to be available to students and staff alike
8. Forget the strength of a compliment when deserved
9. Minimize the contributions which can come from teachers and students valuable to the curricular, extracurricular program, and over-all school spirit
10. Loaf on the job
11. Fail to apply good human relations and support his staff as stated by Code of Ethics

Who Can Tell Him?

1. Professional leaders and authorities, needs of students and the times
2. One's self-evaluation requirement
3. Common sense
4. Needs of youth
5. Teacher training institution
6. Teachers and students
7. Common sense
8. One's own respect for courtesy and consideration
9. One's self-respect for courtesy and consideration
10. Superintendent and board of education
11. Professional organizations

These, briefly, are my thoughts as to what the effective principal does not do. There are, undoubtedly, numerous others.

Summary of the presentation made by R. D. BROWN

THE main responsibilities of a principal are those which tend more than any others to provide the greatest returns in educational dividends for the pupils of his school, both now and in the future. Although any one of the numerous and varied responsibilities of a principal may become critical for some specific reason, it would not *ipso facto* be his most important one. The principal of any junior high school, large or small, has two major responsibilities: (1) planning and organization for the new school year; (2) supervision of instruction.

First, let us consider the matter of planning and organization for the new school year. We need to know what additional teachers will be needed and which members of the present faculty will not return. It is important to work closely with the personnel director in the selection of the best possible new staff. Pupil election of subjects, grouping of pupils, and annual requisitions must be completed before the summer recess. During the summer vacation period the master schedule, pupil schedules, teachers' manual, pupils' manual, school calendar for the year, opening day plans, and various other details must be carefully thought out and completed. This over-all planning done wisely and well makes for a smoother running school and gives the principal more time to work in other areas during the school year.

The most important job of the principal during the school year is supervision or the improvement of instruction. Because of the tremendous emphasis today on better schools, it is now even more imperative that we do all that is possible to improve instruction. "No matter how important the over-all aspects of the program may be, it is what takes place in the classroom that counts. . . . Regardless of how well the school may be organized or how satisfactorily the whole curriculum may be planned, the effectiveness of the program will depend largely upon the nature of the learning activities in the classroom."¹ As a result of numerous visits to schools, conferences with teachers and principals, and the review of many studies made in the field of supervision, I feel that we as principals have done our least effective job in this area. This part of our responsibility has no short cut and it is time consuming. "It is a primary responsibility of the supervisor to know what each teacher is doing and how effective his efforts are, and the most reliable means of obtaining this information is firsthand observation. . . . The wise supervisor will also, in order to appreciate the relative merit of teaching, observe work from time to time

¹ William T. Gruhn and Harl R. Douglass. *The Modern Junior High School*. New York: Ronald Press Co. 1956. Pp. 178.

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in other schools. The knowledge he gains from repeated observations of classes will be the basis for his supervisory program."²

We have assigned our assistant principal to spend almost full time in the field of supervision. As a result of this more intensive program in the field of supervision I have found myself involved to an even greater extent in this area than previously. Where this plan is not feasible, one must either do it himself or make use of department heads or key faculty members. For example, staff members can be used in teaching demonstrations or in teacher visitations. This type of activity can and should supplement a supervisory program even when an assistant principal works in this area. Any supervisory program should include all teachers and not just those who may need the most help.

I have often found in junior high schools, even with a large administrative staff, that the principal assumes too much responsibility for supervision only to find that he has a virtually impossible task. A principal's daily planned schedule cannot always be completed because emergencies arise. However, a principal should not become an administrator of emergencies. Wise delegation of some responsibilities is important in order to allow as much time as possible for a principal to give his maximum efforts to the more important areas. Nevertheless, any delegation of responsibility needs to be checked regularly because it could become a vital area and you are ultimately responsible even though it has been delegated.

The successful principal knows what the main jobs are in his school and he should spend most of his efforts in accomplishing these ends. Careful planning, wise delegation of several responsibilities to faculty members, and an enthusiastic leadership will accomplish satisfactory results in your school. With an intelligent plan and the proper salesmanship you can, in most situations, obtain the necessary help from the board of education to do an effective job.

² Thomas H. Briggs and Joseph Justman. *Improving Instruction through Supervision*. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1954. Pp. 317-18.

WHAT ARE RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN STANDARDS FOR ACCREDITING SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

CHAIRMAN: *Reid Bishop*, High School Supervisor, State Department of Education, Boise, Idaho

INTERROGATORS:

LeRoy Swenson, Assistant Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota

Otis Dell Miser, Principal, Senior High School, Sweeny, Texas

Everett V. Samuelson, Director, Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado

Summary of the presentation made by R. D. MATTHEWS

A RECENT publication of the Council of Chief State School Officers has the title *Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for Approval and Accreditation* and defines *approval* as the official act of the state department of education certifying that a school or school system complies with laws, rules, or regulations for administrative purposes. *Accreditation* is defined as an official decision by the state department of education that, in the judgment of the department, a school or school system has met the standards of quality established by the state. If these definitions are observed in drafting regulations and legislation, the confusion about the meaning of accreditation should be reduced.

In discussing policies for administering an accreditation program, the same publication calls attention to the importance of "defining and periodically redefining, a philosophy of education. . . . This philosophy should determine the objectives toward which the schools will direct their efforts." It also points out that the process of cooperative evaluation would assist schools "in substantiating changes in organization and curriculum as the needs of students and of society indicate. . . . In providing opportunities for staff discussion, clarification of policies, and formulation of plans. . . . The evaluation procedure should provide for self-appraisal and contribute to self-improvement." These quotations, as well as other parts of the pamphlet indicate that the procedures and materials recommended by the Chief State School Officers are consistent with those recommended by the National Study of Secondary-School Evaluation in the 1960 edition of the *Evaluative Criteria*.

This new edition of a popular instrument for evaluation retains the basic approach of earlier editions, but it recognizes the need for more comprehensive study of health services by providing a separate and new

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section in this area. The inclusion of instruction in driver education, distributive education, and religion in some school programs is provided for by new sections. All of the text of the 1950 edition has been examined by a number of people in the fields of their competence and interest and appropriate changes and additions have been made. Efforts were made to have the check-list items and evaluation questions be clearer and more satisfactory to use. The manual, with its suggestions for procedures, was expanded and revised. Provision was made for separate evaluation of the different sciences in the subject field of science and for ancient and modern languages in the area of the program of studies dealing with foreign languages. The section on library services was expanded to give greater attention to audio-visual materials and services. It was decided not to develop a separate set of materials for use in the junior high schools, but it is believed that these schools can use the new edition without any great difficulty. School staffs using these materials are encouraged in the manual and instructions to make such changes in any of the printed materials which will make the description of the school and its program more accurate and more complete and then make the evaluative judgments.

Those who use the 1960 edition of the *Evaluative Criteria* are invited and urged to send any suggestions for changes or additions to the National Study of Secondary-School Evaluation, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D. C., at any time. The most useful suggestions are likely to occur to readers when they first use the materials. The help of those who use the *Evaluative Criteria* in their schools is sought and appreciated. The development of the new edition is the result of the cooperative efforts of many people who have given many hours of service since the beginning of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards in 1933.

Summary of the presentation made by RAYMOND G. WILSON

PROFESSIONAL accreditation of an educational institution recognizes superior achievement and stimulates school improvement. It attests to the supporting public that the institution has been evaluated by experienced and knowledgeable individuals and has been judged worthy of such recognition. It assures the professional staff that they not only are meeting minimum standards but also are providing educational opportunities comparable with other institutions of good repute. Its greatest contribution, however, is that of providing stimulus for continuous improvement, a notable characteristic of good schools.

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Regional accreditation provides a number of advantages generally recognized by the profession and the public. It broadens the horizons of professional persons, insures against provincialism, and provides considerable protection to the profession against political oppression. Regionally accredited schools frequently serve as pilots providing examples of superior practices to their neighbors and, by this means, tend to up-grade educational programs. Since the regional associations work closely together, they facilitate the mobility of students. To a very real extent, these associations have provided a working basis, in the democratic tradition, for a national system of education free of domination from any central Ministry of Education.

Like the other regional associations, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools places its chief emphasis upon continuous school improvement and the maintenance of quality programs. To become a member of the Association and to maintain that membership, secondary schools are required to carry out an evaluation of the total school program initially and periodically. The major purpose of the initial evaluation, mandatory for all applying schools, is to determine status and to provide a basis for further school improvement. Thereafter, schools are required annually to submit evidence of improvement over the preceding year and to have periodic formal re-evaluations.

The standards of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Southern Association specifically require that applying schools must have had a formal evaluation, using the *Evaluative Criteria*, before admission to membership. This evaluation involves a year of self-study followed by a Visiting Committee representing the Commission. Accreditation is extended to both junior and senior high schools. Although the standards require that interim evaluations, after accreditation is attained, shall be made approximately every five years, State Committees encourage continuous evaluation and give particular attention, when reviewing the annual reports, to evidence that this has been done. It is not unusual for schools to be dropped for failure to do so.

Schools are given considerable latitude in experimentation designed to improve the educational program and one standard specifically states, "Member schools are encouraged to carry on active experimental programs designed to improve the school." Where these experimental designs are at variance with present standards, the Commission contents itself simply with requiring that prior approval, readily granted, be secured from State Committees and that progress reports be included in the annual applications. State Committees reserve the right to pass upon evidence that the experimental design is soundly conceived and that plans for adequate evaluation are included.

The Southern Association has for a number of years accredited schools and colleges for both Negro and white youth. Until 1957, however, only those for white students were accorded the status of *membership* in the Association. At the annual meeting of that year, a number of colleges for

Negro youth were admitted into membership and now practically all such institutions enjoy full membership in the Association. To date, no similar step has been taken respecting secondary schools attended primarily by Negro students, but these are carried in the official *Proceedings* in an approved list. For 1960-61, the number of member secondary schools totals 2,017 and there are 393 approved schools. These represent approximately 40 per cent of the secondary schools in the region served by the Association.

It may be recalled that the Association began the accreditation of junior high schools in 1954 and that it has been working for several years in a cooperative program designed to improve elementary schools. At its annual meeting in 1959, the Association authorized its Cooperative Program in Elementary Education, a protege of the Commission on Research and Service, to initiate the accreditation of elementary schools and the first of these were accredited in December 1960. Elementary schools, at this time, have not been taken into membership but are *affiliated with* the Association and *accredited by* the Cooperative Program.

The latest proposal before the Association is that of accrediting total school systems in lieu of, or in addition to, individual schools. Under this proposal, provision would be made to accredit senior high schools and junior high schools on an individual basis, elementary schools on a system basis, and systems of schools on a system-wide basis. Proponents of this proposal point out that such a development would strengthen the efforts of the Association to improve education at all levels throughout the region.

Summary of the presentation made by DONALD C. MANLOVE

ACCREDITATION has been defined in many different ways and no attempt will be made here to arrive at a broad and comprehensive definition. I believe, however, there is considerable agreement in ascribing as a major purpose of accreditation the improvement of instruction through the establishment of minimum criteria or standards which schools are expected to meet or surpass.

While it is admitted that certain criteria are essential and provide the basis for upgrading the high-school program, criteria in themselves do not result in an improved program of instruction. Mere numbers of books or the number of reading stations do not make a good library; properly filled out pupil personnel forms do not constitute a good guidance program; and offering a large number of extra class activities does not insure

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a good pupil activity program. We need to be concerned not only with the quantitative, but also the qualitative aspects of the program. Our concern then is not only with the numbers of books and reading stations, but also with what are the books and how are they used; not only with how the pupil personnel forms are filled out, but also with what use is made of them; and not only with how many extra-class activities are offered, but also with who participate in the pupil activity program and to what extent?

Accrediting procedures can upgrade the program of the high school if encouragement is given to experimentation and to finding new and better methods of instruction. Procedures should also provide for some uniformity desirable among schools and yet encourage and make provisions for the diversity essential to secondary schools attempting to provide for the needs of the school population they serve.

It is essential that the reason for accreditation be thoroughly understood by the administrators, teachers, pupils, school board members, and the community of the school to be accredited. It is then necessary that administrators, teachers, and school board members understand the accrediting procedures to be used. The actual involvement of the staff in the accrediting procedure yields one of the most valuable outcomes of the appraisal. There seems to be general agreement that the most effective way to upgrade the school program is through self-evaluation and the subsequent attention paid to any recommendations made.

The self-evaluation process outlined in the *Evaluative Criteria* is widely used, especially by regional accrediting agencies. In addition, many states use some form of self-appraisal in their accrediting procedures. When teachers professionally examine thoroughly and thoughtfully their own school program, they gain a better understanding of the purposes and objectives of the total school curriculum and of the contribution they are individually making or are failing to make in meeting the needs and interests of the pupils they serve. This self-energizing process stimulates the staff to re-examine methods, materials, and courses of study in an effort to improve instruction. Teachers are reassured that each of them occupies an important position in the school program and has a valuable contribution to make as a member of the school team.

When a visiting committee is used, as outlined in the *Evaluative Criteria*, best results are obtained by making the report of the visiting committee available to the staff. School problems and areas of concern that have been identified by the evaluating committees can provide the foci for faculty and departmental action.

Laurence E. Ely, Professor of Education at Trenton State College, Trenton, New Jersey, reported on a study in the *NASSP Bulletin*, December 1959, entitled "Teachers' Reactions to School Evaluations Using Evaluative Criteria." This study was based on an investigation of reactions of teachers in eighteen public high schools visited by committees of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools during the

school year 1953-54. Approximately four fifths of the teachers believed the school evaluation resulted in benefits to them as teachers. A higher proportion, about seven eighths, thought that it had brought definite benefits to their schools. Most frequently mentioned as benefits to the teacher were self-evaluation and self-analysis, increased knowledge of the school, and encouragement to self-improvement.

It is imperative that the accrediting procedures, to be effective, must provide for continuous improvement. This aspect has perhaps been most neglected. It is not sufficient to rely upon an annual report or periodic check list as evidence of improved instruction. The State Committee of the North Central Association in Indiana has devised a plan to aid member schools in upgrading their programs. Member schools are visited at least once within each four year period by a visiting committee of two experienced secondary educators. This visit is one day in duration in accordance with a planned procedure submitted to the school in advance. A written report of this visit is submitted to the State Committee of the NCA and to the school visited. If the State Committee deems it advisable, in order substantially to improve the program, the school is then asked to undergo a complete evaluation using the *Evaluative Criteria*. In addition, all member schools are encouraged voluntarily to ask for a complete evaluation using the *Evaluative Criteria* at periodic intervals. It is through these visits that individual initiative and group cooperation are stimulated in a planned program of improvement.

HOW CAN SUMMER SCHOOLS ENRICH AND/OR ACCELERATE STUDENT PROGRESS?

CHAIRMAN: *John D. Richmond*, Principal, High School, Martinsville, Virginia

INTERROGATORS:

John J. Condon, Principal, Porter Junior High School, Syracuse, New York; and Coordinator, Summer High Schools, Syracuse Public Schools

W. Ardell Haines, Principal, Allegany High School, Cumberland, Maryland

Charles C. Vines, Principal, High School, Hueytown, Alabama

Summary of the presentation made by THOMAS A. AQUILA

STUDENT progress may be enriched and/or accelerated by first adopting a philosophical commitment for an undertaking that calls for a program of such quality as to provide instruction in accordance with varying pupil abilities and interests. For example, an integral part of the Yale Master of Arts in Teaching program was its summer high-school operation for certification of prospective teachers. Although this project was centered primarily on internship, its allied function of offering superior learning experiences to all pupils was not relegated to a subordinate role. Yale and North Haven, in the interest of good teaching were primarily concerned with what to teach as well as how to teach these students. Consequently, one essential philosophical commitment was concern for an over-all summer-school program of sufficient quality and flexibility that would meet the challenges offered by all levels of intelligence.

To give body to this ideal, it was first necessary to find students for interns to teach. A six-week summer school was offered to seventh-through twelfth-grade pupils from all fifteen towns surrounding the Yale community. Prospective students were informed of the following conditions: (1) classes were to be held from 8:30 to 12:00 daily for all students; (2) everyone was to register for four courses, two in academic areas and two in the fine arts, and each course would be fifty minutes in length; (3) no marks or credit were to be given for summer work; (4) homework was to be expected; and (5) tuition would be \$35, plus transportation.

The response to this announcement was overwhelming. Accepted on a "first-come first-serve" basis, better than 400 pupils from forty-three public schools and sixteen private schools registered by May 1. Intelli-

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gent quotients ranged from low 80's to 140-150 with an over-all average between 105-110. There were almost as many boys as girls. Several pupils had case histories of poor citizenship and others were school leaders during the regular school year. We had our conformists, and non-conformists, our diligent scholars, our procrastinators, our chronic complainers, our willing and unwilling. The only selective factor was a modest tuition.

Finally, we made sound progress toward the implementation of this ideal by creating and maintaining a desirable learning atmosphere. Space will permit a brief discussion of one or two of the more successful procedures. For example, from the very beginning, there was a total faculty effort to create an image of sincere concern for the welfare and progress of every pupil. This attitude was greeted with surprise and warm enthusiasm by the student body. It proved to be a seedbed for goodwill, trust, and confidence which led to the development of teacher-pupil morale of such proportions that both groups worked harmoniously toward the same educational goals with a minimum of difficulty. Further, in addition to utilizing a variety of means to learn the personal histories and academic profiles of their pupils, the teachers sought to teach each class as though it was composed of individuals. Personalized instruction of this caliber required more preparation, demanded more imaginative materials and methods. Consequently, another rewarding procedure was to select creative approaches to teaching, which in turn were closely dependent upon utilizing the latest curriculum developments, of which there are many, in mathematics, languages, science, history, and English.

Student opinion of the summer school was very high, many claiming it was fun; but, more important, they believed the program taught them to think. During the last week of school, all pupils were given evaluation sheets which requested their rating of master teachers, interns, materials, methods, and content. To facilitate scoring, students were instructed to measure their summer experience against three levels—very satisfactory, satisfactory, and unsatisfactory. Better than 97 per cent rated their summer school as very satisfactory. Many pupils backed up their enthusiasm with requests to register for the following summer classes.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN A. VENABLE

A FEW years ago, summer school in most communities was an opportunity provided for negligent or indifferent students to "atone for their sins" by making up work missed by attending a summer session. Under these conditions, summer school was not the most popular phase of our

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educational program. In Pasadena the summer school of 1960 was a vastly different program, enrolling approximately half of all of our regular high-school students. While some students were making up deficiencies, a majority were taking courses for the purpose of broadening and deepening their high-school experiences or were engaged in advanced studies.

When the emphasis was shifted from a remedial to an enrichment program, enrollment began to climb. In 1955 and again in 1956, slightly more than 600 students were enrolled in the secondary summer-school program in Pasadena. In 1957, with the emphasis on mathematics and science and enrichment of the high-school curriculum, there was a jump from 600 to 1,590 enrollees. Due primarily to the leadership of the new superintendent in Pasadena, Dr. Robert E. Jenkins, and the "big push" for "excellence in education," more than 2,000 enrolled for the 1958 program. Enrollments have continued to climb; last summer 2,847 secondary-school students attended summer school. In addition to a very comprehensive secondary-school program, Pasadena also maintains a limited elementary summer-school program.

Beginning as an opportunity offered at one senior high school, summer school is now offered in all of the junior and senior high schools in Pasadena. In addition to a number of remedial courses in the basic areas, 48 other courses in many different areas are offered in a single high school.

Among the basic principles of operation of the high-school summer program in Pasadena are the following:

1. Summer sessions last for six weeks for remedial courses and eight weeks for enrichment courses.
2. Any course in the curriculum may be offered if there is sufficient demand.
3. Classes meet from 8:00 A.M. to NOON only.
4. Only those students are admitted to the summer session who reside in the district.
5. Teachers are employed on an hourly basis and are currently paid at the rate of \$6.00 per hour.

From our experience in Pasadena, we urge districts considering an expansion of the summer-school program to accelerate and enrich student progress to consider the following criteria:

1. The purposes of the summer school are clearly defined in relationship to the total educational program.
2. The summer school program is carefully planned to meet the needs of the community it will serve.
3. The work of the school district, formerly performed during the summer vacation, such as extensive gardening, renovating and remodeling of school buildings, is so arranged that the summer-school program is not subject to more interruption than any other segment of the total educational program.

4. If needed, the complete range of district facilities and services, such as guidance and testing, is available during the summer.
5. Student enrollment is voluntary.
6. The best standards with respect to class size are observed.
7. The program has adequate financial support.
8. Summer-school teachers should be selected with the same care as in the regular program.

In Pasadena, a continuous program of evaluation by parents, students and teachers is conducted. These two brief excerpts from teachers' reports seem to be of special interest:

The greatest strength of the entire summer session is its ability to offer students an extension of the course of study and a contact with those areas in which they have both an interest and curiosity. The attendance procedures and the emphasis upon students being privileged to attend presents a most delightful atmosphere for the teacher.

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The summer session went very smoothly and I enjoyed the experience very much. I am definitely in favor of this type of summer-school program. The majority of the teachers and students are there because they want to be and this makes for a good learning situation. I sincerely hope that this will continue to be the approach used to give the academic-minded student more classroom time during the year.

Summary of the presentation made by WESLEY L. BROWN

IN NONRURAL areas the 12-week summer vacation is an obsolete anachronism. It is hard for boys and girls to get jobs and they don't enjoy loafing all summer. I agree with those who decry the empty school houses of the summertime. This is both wasteful and unnecessary. In our school more than half of our enrollment goes to summer school from free choice and like it. We must progress toward the year around school. The most likely pattern will be the same two semesters we have now plus a vitalized summer session. Summer school will become essentially another semester with students taking three subjects on the average, a few taking two and a few taking four, and earning a full semester's credit in each subject. In the future, the high-school semesters will be shortened to be equivalent to college semesters. Colleges are finding that they can teach effectively in a semester of about 16 weeks exclusive of the examination period. The high-school semester can be shortened to 17 weeks, which would make it possible to run a summer school of 11 weeks and still leave 2 weeks vacation at Christmastime, 1 week in the springtime, and 4 weeks in August. Learning can function in a much shorter time than we normally provide.

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In the future most of our buildings will be air conditioned, so summer heat will not be a problem in school. For the present we can operate summer school in the cooler part of the day and dismiss in the afternoon.

Enrichment or Acceleration. A few ambitious students will find it possible to complete their high-school work in three years and three summer schools. This will be particularly valuable for students going into medicine, law, and some of the other professions.

But the average student will go to summer school for enrichment. Dr. Conant has suggested that our better students should have close to 20 units when they are graduated. With our heavy extracurricular program, our regular semester's work is quite demanding. Enrichment could take place in the summertime. Students could gain one to two units for each summer that they attended. Most students in non-rural areas would welcome this program, although I believe it should be optional.

The New Trier High School Summer School. Our summer school meets five days a week for eight weeks with classes lasting $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours. This gives 60 clock hours for each course offered. This last summer we had an enrollment of 2,200; our fall enrollment was 3,900. Summer school was staffed by 88 certificated teachers. Two thirds of the eighth-grade graduates go to summer school during the summer before their ninth grade. It is not a school for those who have failed. Students elected 3,600 courses. Of these, only 226 courses were being repeated for credit. This is six per cent of the total. An additional ten per cent of our students reviewed courses in which they had poor grades, but 84 per cent were taking new work.

Teachers may teach one, two, or three courses in the summertime. Those teaching three courses receive about three quarters of their regular monthly salary for each of the two months of summer school. We charge fees which cover about half of the expense, but the summer school of the future will be free. The library is open for students who wish to study. Our curriculum for freshmen includes pre-high-school reviews in English, a course called Pre-Algebra, typing, and some courses in athletics. For the better students, we offer academic courses which require a double period and which give two-semesters credit. Average and above-average students can do a good job in these courses. Total enrollments in academic courses were as follows: English 526, mathematics 558, history 265, science 201 (all unit subjects), speech 150, reading development 160, and language 295. We offer courses in non-academic subjects with substantial enrollment. We have courses in physical education and athletics which are open to students who are taking at least one academic subject, totaling 405 registration.

Most of our students attend summer school at least one summer during the high-school course. Our summer school provides enrichment for the able and average student, review and catching up for the weaker student.

In conclusion, I believe that the future high school will consist of two somewhat shortened semesters with an optional summer semester that gives substantially a full schedule of courses and which most students will attend. Most school buildings in the future will be air conditioned and this program will effectively answer the critics who decry the waste of educational facilities which stand idle during the summer.

WHAT KIND OF CONTROL FOR JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS?

CHAIRMAN: *John K. Archer*, Principal, Junior-Senior High School, Malverne, New York; Chairman, Joint Committee on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations

INTERROGATORS:

Clarence A. Brock, Supervisor of Secondary Schools, State Department of Education, Charleston, West Virginia

Keith W. Stoner, Principal, Hickory Junior High School, Sharon, Pennsylvania

Virgil A. Wallace, Principal, Harding Junior High School, Lakewood, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by **ROBERT B. HARRIS**

REPLIES from junior high schools all over the state of Texas reveal local control over interscholastic athletics. Generally speaking, most Texas junior high schools are under the jurisdiction of an athletic director and an executive committee of principals who are responsible to the superintendent of schools. Texas junior high schools are not regulated by the University of Texas Interscholastic League as are the senior high schools. It could be stated, however, that what an athlete does in the ninth grade may later affect his senior high-school eligibility.

Most junior high schools have ninth-grade teams with two coaches. Many schools have seventh- and eighth-grade teams with one or two coaches. Most junior high schools have teams in football, basketball, baseball, track, and tennis. Girls may play and win letters in tennis. Eligibility rules, admission prices, awards, kind of ball, length of prac-

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tice sessions, officials, protests, parent permission forms, playing rules, transportation, transfer policies, schedules, scholarship requirements, physical examinations, physicians in attendance, insurance forms, and injury reports are established in most school policies by the superintendent of schools and the board of education.

In the main, junior high schools play in their own local school district; but, if this is not possible, they play in an organized district composed of nearby towns. Games are played after school during the week, Thursday evening, Saturday morning, Saturday afternoon, and Saturday evening. The length of the game will vary from eight to ten minutes quarterwise. Half time will vary from 15 to 20 minutes with drill teams and bands being allowed from eight to ten minutes each on the field.

Texas junior high schools usually restrict their spring football training to a certain number of days and hold it early in the spring so that it will not interfere with spring sports.

It is sometimes difficult to find coaches who can coach seventh and eighth grades adequately because of low salaries; whereas it is easier to have qualified personnel work with the ninth grade because better salaries are paid.

From the material furnished by the respondents, it would appear at the present time that a standardized junior high-school program of athletics is not necessary; however, such a program could be very easily organized and placed under the University of Texas Interscholastic League.

Summary of the presentation made by HARRY E. REID

IT IS the purpose of this presentation to give a description of the interschool sports practices in the Compton (California) junior high schools. At the conclusion of the intramural program in flag football, basketball, baseball, track, and tennis, interschool competition between the six junior high schools is conducted in these sports. Interschool sports afford the more skilled boys opportunities to compete and utilize skills which they have developed in intramural competition. The interschool competition is subservient to intramurals and, at all times, should be maintained in its proper perspective. At no time shall the interschool program be enhanced at the expense of the intramural program. Competition is limited to eighth- and ninth-grade teams. No boy in the seventh grade is eligible for interschool sports competition except in specific sports; *i.e.* track and tennis.

The operational policies, rules, and regulations for the recreation and sports program are established by the administrative council. The con-

Harry E. Reid is Principal of Enterprise Junior High School, 2600 West Compton Boulevard, Compton, California. Enrollment, 1,260.

trol of the recreation and sports program is vested in the authority of the Recreation and Sports Committee. The principal of each school appoints an administrative representative and a recreation and sports director. This administrative representative from each school has one (1) vote while the recreation director has no voting privileges except when duly authorized to cast an administrative representative's vote. The program is administered by the director of recreation, health, and athletics.

The cost of financing the total program is appropriated from the district recreation budget which is administered by the Recreation, Health, and Athletic Department. The California Education Code, Section 20,801, authorizes school districts to levy beyond the educational tax limit, a tax of five cents (ten cents in unified school districts) per \$100 of assessed valuation to support community recreation programs.

Every boy who participates in any phase of interschool sports, which includes all practice sessions, must be covered by insurance protection in one of the following ways: (1) be a member of the Athletic Protection Fund of the school district; (2) participate in the School Student Insurance Plan; (3) have Personal Insurance. If a boy is not participating in either plan number 1 or number 2, he must have on file in the principal's office an "Athletic Protection Waiver."

The assistant to the director of recreation secures the officials who are paid from the recreation budget. The coaches are the regularly employed junior high-school physical education instructors. In addition to the after-school intramural and interschool sports, they carry on the Saturday and holiday recreation programs. One, designated the playground director is paid \$2.00 per hour and the second, the assistant playground director, is paid \$1.75 per hour.

Championships are played down. Interschool sports award certificates are given to the players who qualify. No admission fee may be charged for any game. Students shall not be excused from classes in order to attend games at other schools. Students of the home school are permitted to see athletic contests at the school and plan yell and song leading activities that are appropriate.

Games are held on Thursday afternoons with one team playing at home and the other away. Games begin when the officials arrive, usually between 3:00 and 3:20 P.M. and must end by 5:00 P.M. except in baseball where all games shall be seven innings in length, or the first completed inning after 5:00 P.M. In case of a tie game, no new inning may be started after 5:20 P.M. and the game shall remain a tie.

In track, each school participates in two dual and one triangular meet before the district finals which are held on a Saturday morning.

In football, the game consists of four quarters, each quarter being 8 minutes for eighth grade and 10 minutes for ninth grade and a 10-minute half-time period.

In basketball, eight-minute quarters are played with 10-minute intermission between halves.

Player equipment for flag football consists of: (a) official flag football belt and flags. (It is permissible for interior linemen to play without flags with the understanding that they may be "tackled" by *two hands anywhere*); (b) sponge rubber knee pads; (c) sponge rubber thigh pads; (d) gym shoes. Sponge rubber shoulder pads and protective headgear of the type used by boxers is optional.

Four weeks of intramurals and one week of team practice precede each interschool sports schedule for flag football, basketball and baseball.

This middle-of-the-road interschool program does not exploit the junior high-school student and seems to meet the needs of the more skilled boys without taking from a strong intramural program. It appears to fall within the framework of the junior high-school interscholastic program as set forth by Dr. Conant in his junior high-school report (*Education in the Junior High School Years: A Memo to School Board Members*).

Summary of the presentation made by ARTHUR ARGAUER

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL athletics shall be an integral part of the junior high-school educational program and the junior high-school principal shall be responsible for guiding the school athletic program in line with the accepted philosophy. Every school shall conduct as complete an athletic program as meets the needs of the junior high-school pupil. Participation and competition shall be kept at a "readiness level" with the age and physical development of the early adolescent ever in mind.

The intramural program shall be the basic part of the school athletic program and the interschool program shall in no way handicap the intramural program which shall be designed to meet the athletic needs and interest of the total school population. To meet the needs of the pupil with special athletic interest and potential, the interschool or extramural athletics may be established.

In fulfillment of this philosophy, the following thoughts shall be born in mind in carrying out the basic aims: The principal is in charge of the program. The principal with his athletic teachers sets the atmosphere for intramural and interschool athletics. There should be no interference with the academic program since the athletic program should be integrated with all other activities essential to junior high-school youth. A specialization in a school activity may now gradually begin. School teams offer an opportunity for a select group with a special talent. The pupils, through team competition, will have another opportunity to recognize their abilities and limitations. Leadership can be given an earlier oppor-

Arthur Argauer is Vice-Principal of Garfield High School, Garfield, New Jersey.

tunity to develop and to be expressed. The junior high-school program must avoid being a farm or feeder system for high-school teams, nor should the junior high school be a miniature senior high school. Improved articulation between junior and senior high schools should be sought. The school is best situated to organize, conduct, and finance the athletic program for the youth of junior high-school age. There should be written standards and controls. These should come from the schools and administrators and through membership in a state association.

New Jersey Secondary-School Principals Association is recommending, based on a study made by a group of junior high-school principals, that all junior high schools belong to the New Jersey State Interscholastic Athletic Association. This will assure standards and controls for interscholastic athletics and these controls should be maintained through membership in the New Jersey Interscholastic Athletic Association rather than have the regulations imposed by the State Department or some other agency which might be pressured to act for political reasons.

The New Jersey School Superintendents Association is also recommending that all junior high schools belong to the New Jersey State Interscholastic Athletic Association.

Summary of the presentation made by CLIFFORD B. FAGAN

THE rapid expansion and accompanying increase in interest in junior high-school interscholastic athletic programs have emphasized the need for proper program control. When school programs develop quickly, there often is a lag in the control necessary to keep the activities correlated and in proper perspective. This is particularly true of such activities as athletics, debate, and music in which the general public and many non-school groups frequently evidence much interest.

It is essential that non-school groups be interested in each phase of school activity, but the responsibility for administration of all aspects of the program must remain with the school authorities. School administrators must draw up and apply the regulations necessary for any activity to maintain its rightful and proper place in the curriculum.

The interscholastic athletic program must be administered so that educational objectives will be achieved, equitable competition will be maintained, the highest ideals of sportsmanship upheld, and participants given the opportunity of enjoying a wide variety of athletic experiences. To accomplish these aims, participants must be properly examined, grouped, instructed, and supervised. Every effort must be made to elim-

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inate injuries. Care must be taken so that there is no over-emphasis, no loss of school time, so that officiating is competent, and that awards are limited.

Faculty members who understand the needs of the particular age group should do the teaching and coaching. Respect for authority and the development of the highest type of sportsmanship must be outgrowths of the program. Participants will learn through game experiences to play within the spirit of the rules, to respect opponents, and to make every effort to win honorably and lose graciously.

Control that will assure the attainment of the foregoing objectives is the aim of educators sponsoring interscholastic athletics, be it at the junior or senior high-school level.

Most student bodies and communities take an active and deep interest in the interscholastic athletic program. A reasonable interest in athletics is healthy and good. However, an excessive interest can over-emphasize the desire to win, thus not only obscuring but actually preventing the attaining of more important and more desirable outgrowths. Desirable outcomes are most likely to be forthcoming when the program is properly controlled.

To maintain desirable competition among schools, regulations generally known as eligibility rules must be established and observed. These rules must limit participation to groups of corresponding age, establish scholarship requirements, regulate the number of games and the length of sport seasons, provide residence requirements, and arrange for limitations of awards.

The control of the athletic program must remain with the school administrators or their duly elected representatives. The drawing up of the eligibility rules is the responsibility of this group which should do it on a democratic basis. Enforcement of the rules is frequently delegated to an executive committee of principals and superintendents.

THE CASE FOR AND AGAINST CORE PROGRAMS AND BLOCK-TIME CLASSES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

CHAIRMAN: *Kermit Mathison*, Principal, High School, Greensboro, Alabama

INTERROGATORS:

Richard H. Bridgman, Assistant Principal, Van Buren Junior High School, Kettering, Ohio

Howard C. Rose, Principal, Capitol View Junior High School, St. Paul, Minnesota

Edward T. Shuma, Coordinator of Secondary Education, Hempfield Area Schools, Greensburg, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by M. DALE BAUGHMAN

SINCE early colonial days curriculum change has been a major concern of both laymen and educators. That democracy is and has been at work is evidenced by the public's popular pastime of criticizing the instructional program of the school. The traditional subject curriculum, familiar to all of you, created dissatisfactions in the minds of educators as well as the general public.

The Cardinal Principles report of the commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education provided the objectives, officially accepted in the early twenties for both elementary and secondary education. In the decade just prior to 1930, many of our high schools had introduced worthy modifications which tended to increase subject matter offerings and recognize, even if in a limited sense, the personal-social tasks of youth.

Meanwhile elementary education progressed experimentally through the project method, the problems approach, and the "activity" movement to the "experience curriculum" and the unit approach which represented an obviously sharp departure from previous plans. Happily, such a distinct cleavage challenged anew the architects of the secondary-school curriculum. You are reminded that the decade of the 30's was one characterized by a large number of high-order regional and national studies concerned with improving the secondary-school curriculum. They shall go unnamed and undescribed here with this one exception—the Eight Year Study. Having as one of its chief outcomes the validation of the belief that no one pattern of subject matter preparation for college excels any other, it made a highly significant contribution to ultimate gains in secondary education.

M. Dale Baughman is Assistant Professor of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

Among the innovations which followed were correlation and fusion of subjects, and the broad fields approach. Both the fusion and broad-fields approach made a chink in the hallowed subject matter walls, but more important than that, perhaps they brought into use the two-period block-of-time idea. Coverage and mastery, however, remained as persistent primary emphases.

Here enter the general needs *vs.* special needs kind of thinking which seemed to sprout in the middle thirties. According to Faunce and Bossing¹ the modern core idea had its inception in the many programs initiated in laboratory schools during the middle and late thirties which were built on the concept of a common body of learning experiences for all pupils. The experience curriculum then is basic to an understanding and interpretation of the core curriculum.

Utilizing the experience curriculum as their springboard, advocates of the core curriculum concept structured some interesting plans for instruction, each of which, to some extent, recognized the role of the school in providing for society citizens with both common and specialized competencies. Various curriculum authorities who have offered clear statements and descriptions of core suggest rather close agreement on the basic meaning of *core*. Their agreement is obvious in that core is an aspect of the experience curriculum concept, is concerned with pupils' acquisition of certain positive attributes needed by all citizens for successful living in a complex and ever changing democratic society, and requires a large block of the school day.

Although the core curriculum movement, in a somewhat limited sense, found a favorable climate in the upper secondary-school grades of a few schools, it has found a warmer welcome in the relative flexibility of the junior high school. This greater acceptance of the core concept or at least one of its elemental characteristics—block-time class organization—at the junior high-school level is verified by studies known to most of you. On a national scale the studies of Wright, Bossing, and Koos point to increases in block-time practices. Studies in California, Illinois, Alabama, Minnesota, and New Jersey reveal that block-time is a prevalent curriculum pattern in junior high schools.

I'm sure you are aware of certain forces which now, in a sense, tend to fragment and compartmentalize junior high-school instruction. I refer to the spotlight on mathematics and science, the midwest stratovision program which identifies and lists course subjects and the Conant recommendation which encourages departmentalization more than it does integration.

In spite of such leverages contrary to integrated learning, at least certain characteristics of the core curriculum, if not its entirety, continue to gain rapidly and find acceptance in junior high schools across the land.

¹ R. Faunce and N. Bossing. *Developing the Core Curriculum*, 2nd Edition. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1958.

With the evidence of best practice supporting it and many authorities in curriculum proclaiming the appropriateness of the core concept for our youth of 12-15 years, it is most likely that such a curriculum organization will continue to gain endorsement in junior high schools.

Summary of the presentation made by E. FRANK HORN

PRIOR to the fall of 1957, Cedar Falls Junior High School operated on a complete departmentalized basis. It was very evident that a large majority of our seventh-grade students were having a difficult time adjusting to the complex life in junior high school after being in a self-contained classroom throughout elementary school. In the fall of 1957, all seventh-grade students were scheduled for two consecutive periods with the same teacher for language arts and social studies. We did not then, and do not now, think of this program as a core program. Instead, it was organized primarily for the purpose of providing seventh-grade students with a teacher who would have fewer students, have them for a longer period of time, and thus be able to know them better and give them more individual attention. It was very evident during the year that our seventh-grade students adjusted much quicker and easier to life in junior high school.

When Peet Junior High School opened in the fall of 1959, the seventh-grade block-time program was expanded. A similar program was started in grade eight. Each block-time teacher has two groups of about thirty students each. They have these students for two periods every day for language arts and social studies. On alternate days, they have the groups for three periods. The language arts course includes: grammar, literature, reading, speaking, writing, spelling, listening, and dramatization. The social studies course in grade seven is world geography and in grade eight is American history. In addition to these courses, the block-of-time includes a program of group guidance, use of the library, and supervised study. Each course retains its identity though some correlation does take place. Each teacher may use the time in any way in order to accomplish the desired objectives.

To summarize, the program: (1) eases the transition from elementary to junior high school by reducing the number of student-teacher contacts and increasing the amount of time students and teachers spend together; (2) provides an ideal setting for group and individual guidance; (3) provides more uninterrupted time for greater flexibility and variety in learning activities; and (4) provides an opportunity for correlation of subject matter.

E. Frank Horn is Principal of Peet Junior High School, Cedar Falls, Iowa. Enrollment, 975.

The greatest difficulty encountered in developing and maintaining block-time classes is that of obtaining interested and well-qualified teachers. Because of this obstacle, we probably won't continue the block-time classes in grade eight. Since the primary objective of block-time classes is to ease the transition from elementary to junior high school, I do not see any real need for block-time classes in grade nine.

Summary of the presentation made by CLYDE L. TAYLOR

LIKE many other plans and ideas that have been brought forth to produce more effective teaching methods, the core program and block-of-time has been accepted by some, rejected by others. Today, in many school systems, the term "core" is used in reference to a block of time. That is, it refers to that part of the curriculum which uses two or three class periods with the same teacher and students for two or more subject areas. Therefore, in discussing this subject I would like to use only the term "block of time" which I believe is the more common of the two terms in the schools of today.

Whenever a new term is introduced either locally or state wide, it not only has an effect on the school personnel, but in the community as well. In many communities, the block-of-time plan has been accepted by the patrons of the schools. Yet in others, lay citizen groups studying the curriculum of the school have emphatically demanded that it be discontinued or drastically altered in some way.

First we may ask why a community would reject such a plan. It seems logical that it would want something that seems to be directed toward solving one of the more serious problems between the curriculums of the elementary and secondary schools, that of articulation. It also seems that whenever there is an opportunity to correlate subject matter and to help students learn to use related skills more effectively, the community would want this done.

One reason given to the contrary by a lay committee studying the curriculum of a large school system in Missouri was that it felt the subject of English was being slighted in the block-of-time program and that English should be taken out and taught as a completely separate subject and, henceforth, be so labeled. Perhaps this criticism, which concerns the study of English, may stem from one weakness of the block-of-time which most educators are aware, that being the difficulty in always finding qualified teachers for the program. If you have a block consisting of perhaps the most common combination, social studies and language arts, and a teacher strong in the social studies field, it may well be that the

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language skills will be slighted just as history may be if the reverse be true.

Turning to the inspection of systems where the block-of-time has been fully accepted by the community, and there are many of them, we can find some very concrete reasons for its support. Certainly it is one way for improving articulation. It is an opportunity to teach related skills and how they may be used to get along with other peoples. We cannot overlook its value where genuine problem solving situations can be set up and carried out to completeness. Today, when communication is so important (not to say it hasn't always been) between ourselves and other nations, the block-of-time seems to me a step forward to better teaching methods.

A school system cannot stop the traditional departmental method one day and tell its community it has something new to use the next day. Naturally the community may rebel against it. The ground work must be done carefully and with community understanding. Recognized authorities and teacher-training institutions should be asked for help. The school staff, not only junior high but elementary and senior as well, should be oriented to the plan. Adequate instructional materials must be provided. Last, and perhaps most important, local PTA and lay committees should hear the plan explained and be told of its advantages as well as its disadvantages.

In Lee's Summit, the block-time program has been in use since 1953. Its success can be summed up in three ways: the teachers like it because they feel the important goals of today's curriculum can be reached; the patrons of the school system know why the plan is being used (each parent has an opportunity each year to attend a block class for 20 minutes); and finally, the pupils themselves realize its value and that many activities that would take more than an hour to carry out can be completed before the bells ring.

ASSESSING NEW ISSUES IN JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

CHAIRMAN: *Kenneth D. Baker*, Principal, Euclid Junior High School, Littleton, Colorado

INTERROGATORS:

Herbert M. Lindstrom, Principal, Franklin Junior High School, Rock Island, Illinois

Calvin T. Smith, Principal, Monroney Junior High School, Midwest City, Oklahoma

Eric A. Whitted, Principal, Lealman Junior High School, St. Petersburg, Florida

Summary of the presentation made by **ROLLIN MCKEEHAN**

THE junior high school after a century of existence is being recognized as a vital part of the American education program. This recognition has come slowly. In many school systems even today the junior high school is no more than an administrative convenience. The purposes and functions, by and large, are identified and supported in theory and not in practice. The junior high school is neither a glorified elementary school nor a miniature high school. The activities planned should meet the educational, emotional, and social needs of the pre-adolescents and early adolescents. The impact of the high school must be evaluated in terms of the purposes and functions of the junior high school.

The teachers of pre-adolescents and early adolescents should have specialized training for working with this age group. This training should include courses that deal with the growth and development of the group. In addition to securing specially trained teachers for junior high school, these teachers should want to work with late pre-adolescents and early adolescents. The junior high school should not be a temporary place for teachers awaiting employment assignment in the elementary or high schools.

The junior high school must not mimic the high school. Its program should be developed around the interests and needs of the 12-14 year age-group. The curriculum should be different from that of the high school or the elementary school. The boys and girls are quite different developmentally from elementary children and from adolescents in the high school. There is a great deal of variance in the purposes of the junior high school from those of the other two units. The proper selection and organization of learning experiences should provide opportunities for early adolescents to deal with their social and emotional problems. The

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importance of the activity program must not be minimized in the junior high school. The success of this program will depend upon the manner in which the school is administered and organized. The health and physical needs of these pupils should be met through wisely provided experiences. It is the function of the junior high school to help this age group maintain emotional and social stability through an understanding of the body changes and development.

Many skills developed in the elementary school must be continued in the junior high schools. The skills involved in communication, calculating, and studying and other skills must continue in the junior high-school program. These skills must be kept in mind in planning the curriculum, basically general education, for youth in this age group.

Guidance and personnel services are most important because of the pressures and stresses which are a part of growth and development of this age group. Counselors and teachers should be trained to assist pupils with their emotional and social problems that are peculiar during this period of maturation. Many of these problems can be helped through group guidance in the classroom. Every teacher should accept responsibility for group guidance. The individual problems of pupils are usually the responsibility of the guidance counselor.

The recent emphasis upon modern foreign languages, mathematics, and science is being felt in the junior high school. This emphasis, by and large, is on enrichment and quality teaching. The trend seems to be toward junior high schools accepting responsibility for certain courses now offered at the senior high-school level.

The junior high school of today will be a more effective organizational unit in our American educational system if we work toward achieving the purposes and functions of the junior high school with teachers who have had specialized training and who want to work with junior high school pupils.

Summary of the presentation made by MAURICE A. McGLASSON

THE decade of the sixties will find the junior high school even more in the national and state spotlights as America continues to re-assess its educational program. Indiana is one example of this growing emphasis on the junior high school.

Within the state the following activities are indicative of things to come. Through a series of workshops and committee activities the Indiana Association of Junior and Senior High-School Principals, in cooperation with the State Department of Public Instruction, is working toward

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the publication of a junior high-school bulletin for the state. Recommendations from a committee appointed to study the certification of junior high-school teachers are now being considered by the Teacher Training and Licensing Commission. The shift of the city of Fort Wayne from an 8-4 to a 6-3-3 organizational pattern has received national attention. The School Reorganization Act passed by the state legislature in 1959 is encouraging further study of school organizational patterns in many areas of the state. As these activities are carried forward, what is happening in the junior high schools themselves?

As you know, Indiana has been a stronghold of the two-year junior high school. Ten years ago, the two-year junior high schools outnumbered the three-year junior high schools approximately two to one. During the decade of the fifties this changed to an approximate one to one ratio. At the present time school systems changing their organizational pattern are adopting the 6-3-3 form. There seems little question that any further school reorganization will be in this direction.

In the junior high-school program, an increased emphasis on guidance services and provisions for additional guidance personnel seem evident. However, the pattern of organization of the guidance program is not so clear. Most Indiana junior high schools have traditionally provided a home-room basis for the guidance program. Now as a block of time arrangement is becoming more widely used, a re-study of the role of the home-room teacher, the block of time teacher, and the counselor is necessary.

More curriculum study is being carried on at both local and state levels. On the state level, the forthcoming junior high-school bulletin mentioned above will include a policy statement in each of the curricular areas. On the local level, this curriculum study has been encouraged, of course, by national events and persons. But perhaps even more urgent reasons for local curriculum study are the increase in the block-of-time program, the more common provision for individualized student programs, and the possibilities of vertical enrichment. A realization seems to be developing that we cannot continue our attempt to teach all that is known in any curricular area. The struggle to "cover" everything is a lost battle. Rather it becomes increasingly clear that emphasis must be placed on such aspects as study techniques and habits, a problems approach, and a most careful scrutiny of each curricular area through continuous study on a 1-12 basis. It is through curriculum study and planning involving elementary-, junior high-school, and senior high-school levels that there may come some help to junior high-school administrators as they seek ways and means of providing a flexibility of schedule.

At the present time there seems to be a willingness to experiment in the junior high schools of Indiana. Perhaps this has come about largely through the publicity given such devices as reading machines, language laboratories, and television. However, the willingness to try new devices seems to have carried over to a willingness to try new materials, pro-

cedures, methods, and ideas. It is possible that this point of view, this willingness, may be, in the final analysis, the finest result of these experimental approaches. The need for experimentation and research at the junior high-school level is tremendous.

Apparently there is an increasing interest in the materials and procedures of evaluation of the junior high-school program. This seems to be a favorable time for administrators and faculties to look at their facilities, their program, their pupils, their community, and themselves. This evaluation of junior high-school education needs to be in terms of the objectives of education in the community as they are reflected in the functions of the junior high school. It is our continued efforts to provide a program designed to encourage the development of individual excellence and talent in all fields that necessitates an assessment of new issues in junior high-school organization. It is this distinctive educational program designed for early adolescents which is the junior high-school idea.

Summary of the presentation made by ROY O. ISACKSEN

THE first phase of junior high-school development was characterized by an alarming tendency towards specialization. The curriculum bristled with subjects. In the school designed to meet the needs of the early adolescent, stated functions had little effect on practice. There was little attempt to implement curriculum in terms of early adolescent development.

Remonstrances against complete departmentalization and specialization led to a second or reorganizational phase. Awareness of the difficulty experienced by elementary school children in changing from the guidance of one person to the compartmentalized program with its numerous specialists has led to the development of the "block-of-time." Two subjects, usually English and social studies, are combined under the direction of one teacher thus reducing the number of pupils which this teacher is required to meet. Home-room duties and functions are transferred to the block-of-time class. The pupil, then, has at least one teacher who has the opportunity to know him well thereby increasing the guidance possibilities. This also represents a step toward general education.

In spite of the fact that this reorganization is basically sound, there is criticism by those who resent any break with tradition. Others feel strongly that it does not go far enough in the direction of general education.

What organizational pattern can contribute most to the realization of the potential in each early adolescent of 1970? There follows a description of the "third phase" in junior high-school development.

Roy O. Isacksen is Principal of Como Park Junior High School, Saint Paul, Minnesota.

This is a period of experimentation and forward movement. The name junior high school is dropped in favor of "middle school." This helps to check the tendency to ape the high school and the effort to move high-school subjects down into this area. Teachers are trained and certificated particularly for the middle school. Certification is in terms of broad areas such as preparation in both language arts and social studies, both science and mathematics, and is provisional after four years. Teachers of the special subjects must have much more general education. Permanent certification will be possible only after a fifth year of preparation to come after experience as a classroom teacher. The number of credits in the disciplines is reduced and courses in the psychology of the early adolescent and the philosophy of the middle school required. A program of internship is substituted for the inadequate few weeks of student teaching. Part-time employment in a social agency or a summer camp for less privileged children is among the requirements. The course in the psychology of learning includes emphasis on the studies in perception. Memorizing, simple recall of facts, is shown to be a comparatively low level of learning. Methods courses are designed to assist student teachers in developing ways to facilitate what might be called permanent learning, such as the ability to solve reasoning problems in arithmetic, the ability to organize materials for presentation to a group. These involve the higher mental processes. Studies in creativity have progressed to the point where this quality can be identified and methods devised for its encouragement in the classroom. Trainees are taught the skills involved in effective group work in order that these may be passed on to the children. They learn to work in teams since the teaching which can best be done in large groups and that requiring small groups has been well defined.

Guidance is the heart of the middle school program and is facilitated by class-free periods for the block-of-time teachers. Parent conferences and an annual written progress report have replaced the competitive report card.

To implement the exploratory function of the middle school it is necessary to discard completely the Carnegie unit. Classes meet less than the customary five times each week. Numerous short courses are developed and a club and a pupil interest activity program is included within the school day. As a result boys and girls will have from forty to fifty experiences under the direction of a teacher in the three years compared with fifteen to eighteen at present. To free the middle school from the domination of the high school and college, boys and girls are certified as ready for senior high school. There is no credit counting. Because of the provision for guidance to an extent not practiced now and the provision for corrective and remedial work there is no "failure." Each boy and girl has a three-year middle-school experience. Ability grouping has been discarded because of the recognition that it develops in the impressionable early adolescent feelings of superiority and inferiority and group

divisiveness. It is replaced by grouping within each class on the basis of pupil interest and need.

Professionally the middle school becomes a career since salaries of teachers, counselor, and administrative personnel are equated with those in the senior high school. Public support has been won to the point where we can staff a school of 1,000 pupils with fifty-nine professionals as suggested by Dr. James B. Conant plus teaching assistants, readers, and clerical help supplied as needed. The twelve-months school year, with summer camps for all school youth, will end school staff unemployment in the summer. Since principals no longer leave the junior high school for senior high-school posts, the middle school program has the sustained, consistent leadership lacking at present.

The middle school pupil of 1970 will enter high school having made real progress in becoming a person who likes to read and does read, is imaginative, moves toward people instead of away from people, thinks critically, makes necessary decisions wisely, has a feeling of concern, of compassion when made aware of violations of human rights, human dignity, and directs much of his own learning.

DO TESTING PROGRAMS BENEFIT OR DOMINATE INSTRUCTION?

CHAIRMAN: *C. W. Sanford*, Dean of Admissions and Records, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

INTERROGATORS:

Wayne De Beer, Principal, Riverview Gardens Senior High School, St. Louis, Missouri

Maynard Henwood, Principal, High School, New Haven, Indiana

G. C. Wilson, Associate Director of Admissions, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

Summary of the presentation made by WALTER J. ROCK

THEY can do both. A properly planned and well-organized testing program can have a tremendous influence in the improvement of instruction in the high school. It must, however, be the servant and not the master! It must be looked upon as an integral part of instruction. It must accompany all instructional planning and the test results should be used in the development of the curriculum to assure that the needs and interests of the students are properly met.

Walter J. Rock is Assistant Director of Secondary Education in the Saint Paul Public Schools, Saint Paul, Minnesota.

If we adopt the principal that the high school accepts and teaches all of the children of all of the people, then we must develop a curriculum which is broad and flexible and which recognizes the wide variety of aptitudes and interests of all students. We must help students identify their strengths and weaknesses and then provide a program of studies in which they can succeed.

In part, curriculum objectives can be determined, refined, and clarified by the use of a good testing program. Every principal and teacher needs to determine what the objectives are and how they may be attained. Many teachers and schools carry on a program of instruction without a clear conception of goals or objectives. If instruction is to be properly planned, and materials and procedures adequately provided, there must be a clear understanding of the goals to be reached.

To aid in the selection of objectives, it is important to secure information about the students' needs, aptitudes, interests, and skills. It is important to know about the economic and social demands which will face the student when he leaves school. It is important to determine a pupil's status in a subject area and adjust the learning situation to meet this level of achievement. Standardized testing is an important step in this process. The pupil's level of achievement and the extent of his skills may be revealed through diagnostic and achievement tests. A general achievement test may reveal his achievement in a given field. A diagnostic test may uncover specific deficiencies in learning. While a single score may be of value in an achievement test, it is of lesser value in a diagnostic test. In the latter, the scores are important that reveal specific deficiencies.

Thus we see that educational testing is important in clarifying educational goals and objectives; in revealing the needs and interests of the students; in determining the status of the pupils in various learning areas; in determining the curriculum which shall be offered to meet these needs; and in providing the principal with the background information which will enable him to organize properly the curriculum and select the materials to make this effective.

Summary of the presentation made by J. A. NOBLE

IN THE Ontario secondary schools there are three major testing programs: Carnegie Study in grade 10, Departmental Testing in grade 12, and the Departmental Examinations in grade 13. In order to decide whether these tests dominate instruction or not, let us examine the objectives of the tests.

J. A. Noble is Principal of Thorold-Fonthill High School, Fonthill, Ontario, Canada. Enrollment, 437.

The Carnegie Study is a series of tests which were given to the entire grade 9 population in 1959-60, with a follow-up each year, to throw light on a number of problems such as: What factors will guarantee success in institutions of higher learning? What is the reason for the drop-outs of able students? What means can be discovered for overcoming financial barriers to higher education? How can we develop better instruments for identifying and measuring abilities which will be valid for Ontario? How can we improve entrance requirements for institutions of higher learning and how can we reorganize our high-school program to meet more directly the needs of all types of students. In these tests a very careful study is being made of special aptitudes: (verbal, non-verbal and mechanical) achievements in skill subjects; teacher ratings; and pupil interest.

The grade 12 testing program, in a province like Ontario where there is a strong central authority, is designed to stabilize standards throughout the province since a large percentage of our teachers have less than five years of experience. Its second aim is to test strengths and weaknesses in instruction. In addition to the Scholastic Aptitude Tests which are given each year, in 1958-59 there were tests in English and French; in 1959-60 tests in Chemistry and English; and in 1960-61 tests in World History, Part Two, Latin, Algebra, and History of Elements in Economics. Results are sent to the schools to be available for promotion meetings in June. A copy of these results is also kept by the department for comparison with teachers' recommended marks. These tests tend to dominate instruction slightly more than the Carnegie ones.

The grade 13 Departmental Tests, which are used to provide entrance to institutions of higher learning, definitely dominate instruction. In such subjects as Mathematics, Science, and Latin the emphasis is on understanding, whereas in French there is greater emphasis on pronunciation.

They also provide valuable in-service training for teachers since they are employed as associate examiners for a three-year term on a rotation basis. In addition, comments on individual papers are sent to all teachers in the province. This enables them to be more critical of their own program and to re-evaluate what is being done in class.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN F. SANTROCK

BEFORE the impact of the National Merit Testing Program in 1954, research indicates seldom, if ever, did graduates of Nitro High School receive scholarships or attend college out of state. In fact only eleven of 100 graduates in 1954 attended college. Last year's (1960) graduating

John F. Santrock is Principal of Nitro High School, Nitro, West Virginia. Enrollment, 1,425.

class found over 45 per cent attending college with seventeen receiving scholarships, and eleven are in out of state schools.

There are many factors involved other than a testing program, but the merit qualifying test opened the eyes of a principal, teachers, students, and community that we were not selling to our students the real opportunities of a college education and the availability of that education to them.

This all began when two of our six students taking National Merit in 1954 were semi-finalists. These same two boys, after examining literature from various colleges, *etc.*, received substantial scholarships to out of state schools. Both returned during Christmas vacation with the explanation, "we're getting along fine but having trouble with mathematics." Since both of these boys were two of the top students in our school, we investigated and found both were succeeding in calculus without having had college algebra or analytic geometry. From this experience, we have revised our mathematics sequence to include the above mathematics. Both boys are now successful engineers, one at DuPont Company in Belle, W. Va., and the other with Monsanto Chemical Company at Nitro, W. Va.

The attitude of our students in enrolling in the more difficult subjects can be shown from this comparison. In the school year 1954-55, Nitro High School had only enough students enrolled in second-year Algebra and Solid Geometry-Trigonometry to offer these subjects in alternate years. This year, 1960-61, there are four intermediate algebra sections alone. In other areas such as modern language, college preparatory English, physics, and chemistry, we find the same enthusiasm.

Now, the attempt to answer the question, "Do Testing Programs Benefit or Dominate Instruction?" The answer in our school is they definitely dominate and benefit our school. It has certainly given emphasis to a higher level of achievement. From a teacher's point of view, my senior English composition, college-preparatory instructor made these summations: "Students who excel in performance on tests admit pride in the recognition and prestige which accrue from their achievement. Simultaneously, they lament the absence of further and future benefits, except in instances of dire financial need. Let's face it. In this day of international competition for interplanetary conquest, figurative and literal, our teenage status seekers are merely in harmony with the times, and wisely so with survival in jeopardy. The competitive spirit will be increasingly nurtured by imminent Federal aid to education, continuation of an expanding testing program, accelerated by the approbation of enthusiastic participants. The school is only being realistic in providing this extensive and intensive testing service. The program is endorsed even by students who do not feel competent to take the tests. The current popularity of the program is a phenomenon of our time, an effort to fulfill the need for a scholastic stimulus in the wake of two recent wars which produced a critical American educational lag."

Today, the administrator is faced with a multiplicity of tests from outside groups—SCAT, CEEB, ACT, NEDT, NMSQT, N.S. Employment Aptitude Tests. A measure for a principal's decision as to whether to use a certain test could be as our state supervisor stated: "If the domination is carried to the extreme and schools use the testing programs as the total purpose of the curriculum, and if teachers teach only for successful test results, they have lost the true value of testing. As long as testing programs are prescribed by educators-teachers, supervisors, and administrators—close to the learning situation and to the extent that these people have the real needs of pupils in mind—we should have no fears as to the beneficial effect of testing on the instructional program."

THE DAILY SCHEDULE—SHORTER PERIODS, LONGER PERIODS, VARIABLE PERIODS, OR WHAT?

CHAIRMAN: *Harold E. Eaton*, Principal, Junior-Senior High School, Lindenhurst, New York

INTERROGATORS:

James P. Harrison, Principal, South Junior High School, West Chester, Pennsylvania

Darrell Langevin, Principal, High School, Oakland, Oregon

James F. O'Brien, Principal, Clay Senior High School, Oregon, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by CLYDE M. GOTT

THE daily schedule, whether this would provide for shorter periods, longer periods, or variable periods, should be the best schedule that administrators and teachers can devise. The schedule should be compatible with the philosophy of the school and have the general support of members of the faculty, students, and citizens in the community. Many should be involved in the building of the schedule and necessary information about the schedule should be distributed to those concerned as quickly as possible each school year. The schedule should become the servant of the instructional program rather than the master of it.¹

Improvement in quality of education can be accomplished only by changes in some present practices.² The secondary school of the future, if it is going to be better, must differ from the present day high school. Present high standards in American secondary schools have resulted from

¹ Lloyd J. Trump, *New Horizons for Secondary School Teachers*, p. 25, NASSP.

² Lloyd J. Trump, *New Directions to Quality Education*, p. 3, NASSP.

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experimentation and adaptation of new ideas. Continued study, experimentation and evaluation are necessary in a re-examination of secondary education in America.

Even with these admonitions, the large high schools of Texas are making haste slowly with regard to changes in schedules. These schools as a whole follow a six-period school day with each period approximately fifty-five minutes in length. Five minutes are allowed between periods for passing of students to classes.

There are, however, some innovations and some experimentation with the master schedules. Thomas Jefferson High School in El Paso, for example, follows an eight-period day beginning with a zero period from 7:30 A.M. to 8:15 A.M. each day. Classes are held in distributive education, typing and R.O.T.C. during this time. The school day ends at 3:30 P.M.

Some schools have one lunch period, others two, others three, and some have four such periods. This has generally come about due to the inability to house pupils adequately in the cafeterias.

The administrators of Highland Park High School of Dallas consider their schedule as traditional in that there are six fifty-five minute periods in the school day. A student is permitted to enroll for only four academic subjects along with physical education and study hall. Nearly 100 per cent of the students follow the college preparatory program. Grouping has been followed since 1932. The chief dissatisfaction is with the fifty-five minute period for laboratory science.

Port Neches High School in Port Neches, Texas, experimented with the plan of dropping the study hall and incorporating the six periods into five longer periods of seventy minutes each for the 1954-55 school year. This schedule was abandoned after one year in favor of a six-period day for each pupil which included physical education but without a study-hall period.

Central High School in San Angelo, Texas, follows a seven-period school day. The seventh period is known as an opportunity period. It is a voluntary period and quite flexible for most pupils. School clubs, athletic teams, and certain vocational classes meet. In addition, the library is open to all pupils, science laboratories may be used, and make-up work may be completed.

In San Angelo the periods vary in length. The first period is 65 minutes, the second 75 minutes, the third 60 minutes, and the fourth 90 minutes. There is horizontal grouping in certain subject areas, large-group instruction, and strong emphasis on developing good study habits among the pupils.

At Abilene High School, Abilene, Texas, there are eight periods in the day. The first period is from 7:30 A.M. to 8:30 A.M. and the eighth period is from 3:45 P.M. to 4:45 P.M. This schedule is followed because it is not possible to house all pupils in the regular six-period day.

At Harlingen High School, Harlingen, Texas, a new schedule will be followed with the beginning of the 1961-1962 school year. This will include four 50-minute periods before lunch and two 65-minute periods after lunch. There will be no study-hall period in the new schedule.

Secondary schools should continue to experiment with schedules attempting always to improve the instructional programs. Because a schedule plan has been followed for years doesn't necessarily mean that this is not a good schedule and that good teaching does not take place. It is true, however, that within the bounds of present schedules there is ample room for improvement of the teaching-learning process.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN W. SIMMONS

ADMITTEDLY, the daily schedule and the length of periods are not nearly so important as that which happens to students and teachers during their sharing of experiences. All of this must, of course, take place within a structure which permits similar activity to occur concurrently in a number of curricular and co-curricular activities—hence, the *need* for a sensible *daily schedule* with careful deliberation concerning the *length of periods*. So, let's plan.

First consideration, in my opinion, is the lunch situation. Let's assume that all students will remain at school for lunch; that it is our responsibility to minimize the number of students using cafeteria facilities in a given period; that there must be ample provision to satisfy established good health practices with no wasted time; that lunch probably can't be enjoyed much before 11 A.M., or that no maximum contribution can be achieved in classes immediately preceding an unusually late period. Let's assume, also, that four lunch periods are essential to achieve the above basic requirements—fewer than four will make scheduling easier; more than four will probably indicate an urgent need for more adequate facilities. Assuming a three-minute passing time, let's eat as follows: (A) 11:07-11:37; (B) 11:40-12:10; (C) 12:13-12:43; (D) 12:46-1:16

Next, let's establish a basic length of period. For many reasons—one of the most important of which is to exceed by far the unsatisfactory minimum of forty-minutes daily in major subject areas—let's decide upon fifty minutes per period. Not only does this provide almost an additional hour weekly than the minimum of five forty-minute periods, but also it compensates for the occasional period missed for various reasons. Let's start the day with a ten-minute home-room period; have a seven-period day; provide ample time for after-school group, socializing, self-expression, and creative activities. This basic daily schedule results:

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- 8:15- 8:25 (10 minutes) Home Room
8:28- 9:18 (50 minutes) First Period
9:21-10:11 (50 minutes) Second Period
10:14-11:04 (50 minutes) Third Period
- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| A. 11:07-11:37 (30) Lunch | C. 11:07-12:10 (63) Fourth Period |
| 11:40-12:30 (50) Fourth Period | 12:13-12:43 (30) Lunch |
| 12:33- 1:16 (43) Fifth Period | 12:46- 1:16 (30) Fifth Period |
| B. 11:07-11:37 (30) Fourth Period | D. 11:07-11:57 (50) Fourth Period |
| 11:40-12:10 (30) Lunch | 12:00-12:43 (43) Fifth Period |
| 12:13- 1:16 (63) Fifth Period | 12:46- 1:16 (30) Lunch |
| 1:19- 2:09 (50 minutes) Sixth Period | |
| 2:12- 3:02 (50 minutes) Seventh Period | |

The forty-three minute periods of Schedules A and D need no explanation, but what about the sixty-three minute session? It has proved to be ideal for band, orchestra, chorus, physical education, home economics, industrial arts, remedial instruction, oral expression, typing, art; it combines with thirty-minute periods on alternating days for a weekly accumulation of 216 or 249 minutes in a major subject area. This explains partially the practical employment of the thirty-minute period; other uses include group guidance classes, the session on one day for major subjects meeting fifty minutes daily on the other four days (totaling 230 minutes per week) and can be used for many subjects listed previously for sixty-three minute sessions: oral expression, remedial instruction, typing. Longer periods can, and should, be achieved by combining two consecutive fifty-minute periods or a fifty with a forty-three and have segments of 103 and 96 minutes for physical education (picking up approximately twenty-three minutes of dressing and passing time), for home economics (providing opportunity to taste the cake started almost two hours previously), industrial arts (eliminating one clean-up session), and especially for correlated subjects with the same teacher (English-social studies, mathematics-science, English-foreign languages, and dozens of other possibilities).

What has been accomplished? School starts at a reasonable time and provides ample opportunity for co-curricular post-school experiences; maximum achievement is possible in a full school day permitting change of pace during an adequate lunch period; provision has been made for maximum pupil-teacher sharing of experiences; minutes which become hours in ten months have been efficiently employed.

Summary of the presentation made by MATTHEW F. NOALL

THE daily class schedule in the secondary school contributes to the achievement of the educational purposes set up by the school. It is the time and space arrangement for exposing pupils to desirable educational experience. The necessity to handle pupils on a quantitative basis has, in the past, developed extreme rigidity in a pupil's learning schedule.

It is no wonder that in such situations pupils move from room to room with accurate clockwise precision. At the end of a school day, many of those exposed to uniform presentation of lesson material in set time periods feel, consciously or unconsciously, that their individual needs and interests have had little in common with what they have received.

The basic organization is inimical to the idea of quality education in the light of our knowledge of individual pupil differences. Both teachers and pupils have been in bondage to the mechanized aspect of school administration.

Schedule modification, then, implies some kind of change in the time and space arrangement for the school day, the school week, and of a pupil's being constantly under the scrutiny of the same teacher. As long as a principal's educational philosophy can be served by the old type of schedule, there is no stimulus for its modification. However, when the principal sets up educational purposes which cannot be achieved by rigidity of plant operation, then the way may be opened for new approaches to quality education.

Class schedules should be reorganized for quality learning. If the schedule really is to become the servant of such an educational philosophy, it should provide the opportunity to accomplish the declared purposes. It should foster pupil responsibility for learning, and it should recognize creative inquiry and the differences among learners. It should provide convenient time for independent study, differentiation of services to pupils, large- and small-group instruction, a variety of avenues to knowledge, and time for professional growth of teachers.

Experimentation indicates that the new approaches should include team-teaching with large- and small-group instruction with independent study; also a greater use of audio-visual materials, electronic devices for mechanized and multi-sensory experiences for the learner. A longer block of time consisting of two or more class periods should be set aside. There should be freedom for teachers within the time block to regulate the learning experiences as need arises. This arrangement would include both longer and shorter periods of time as need dictates.

Matthew F. Noall is Executive Secretary of the Utah Central Research Committee of the Secondary-School Principals' Association of Utah, 223 State Capitol Building, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Dividing the school day into smaller modules of time, say 30 minutes, 15 minutes, or any other unit, would enable pupils to follow variable schedules or to attend classes where but single sessions now are available.

A pupil should have his individual schedule adjusted to his individual needs. The basic core of common learnings in each subject area could be covered in the large-group instruction.

What should we strive for, shorter periods, longer periods, variable periods, or what? Each has its distinct merits, each has its place in the schedule. The particular form to be used at any specific time depends on the purposes of education set up by the faculty and the needs of the pupils. The first step would be the conversion of the principal and his faculty to newer approaches in secondary education. Once this has been achieved, the particular characteristics of the schedule can be worked out cooperatively. Versatile scheduling holds great possibility for the improvement of secondary education.

WHAT RESPONSIBILITIES FOR THE PRINCIPAL IN ORGANIZING, SUPERVISING, AND EVALUATING TEACHING TEAMS?

CHAIRMAN: *Daniel B. Fitts*, Headmaster, Andrew Warde High School, Fairfield, Connecticut

INTERROGATORS:

Raymond D. Bishop, Principal, May Goodrell Junior High School, Des Moines, Iowa

Summary of the presentation made by T. C. GURNEY

COMMENSURATE with our philosophy of education has been a deep-seated desire to implement our present educational system better. We feel that the best way to accomplish this is by developing more effective utilization of our classroom teachers. This feeling led us to a thorough evaluation of the merits of team teaching.

A great deal of study and research has been done to improve staff utilization and organization as one means to provide for the individual differences of pupils and teachers. Team teaching seems to be one method by which this can be accomplished. At the present, it is being used in an increasing number of schools. Although all the suggested

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values of team teaching have not been proved, we feel that the basic principles are sound and that this technique of teaching will foster a more comprehensive experience for our students. Realizing this method has been effective in other schools, our initial problem was to determine whether or not it would enhance our program.

A change or revision in curriculum, either in the presentation of a school subject or the course of study pursued, very often occurs after a need develops. The staff of Chagrin Falls High School began to evaluate the English program merely to determine its effectiveness in relation to the students' abilities and achievements. The results of our extensive survey could easily have led us to a path of complacency and satisfaction.

Questionnaires submitted to graduates enrolled in college in 1959 indicated that 63 per cent felt they had been very well prepared; 33 per cent, fair to good, and 4 per cent, poorly. Six per cent of the 1960 graduating class received a sufficiently high score to warrant college credit through the College Entrance Examination Board's Advanced Placement Test. Five students last year received national awards from *Scholastic Magazine* for writing. This will give us material on which to compare future results.

In Chagrin Falls High School at present, we are using the team teaching method in our ninth-grade English classes and expect to expand to other classes and courses in the following years. We are in a very fortunate position because our program for team teaching is planned, and next fall we will have a language-arts building planned according to the needs of this type of program. The building will house a sound proof language laboratory and a visual aid room. There will be six classrooms with movable partitions and a large central area for library and assembly room.

There are several steps necessary to establish a sound and proficient teaching team and an ever enriched program. Following are a few tremendously important points:

1. A well-trained, enthusiastic staff willing to work and having the belief that this is the way to accomplish the goal
2. Teachers willing to work together and respecting the ability of each other
3. A tremendous amount of time of the teacher given to planning the program before starting it
4. Continued planning throughout the year
5. Grouping of pupils according to their abilities, previous achievement, and teacher's judgment at the beginning of the school year
6. Transferring students between groups when the cases warrant
7. An adequate testing program to ascertain pupils' progress
8. Continuous evaluation of the program.

Summary of the presentation made by MAURICE BLEIFELD

IN ADDITION to his preoccupation with everyday problems, the alert principal has a responsibility to keep his eyes on the horizon for new educational trends. The teaching team approach is one such innovation that merits his consideration. Does it offer hope for a better utilization of his staff? What are its strengths and weaknesses?

An analysis of its advantages reveals, first, that it offers an answer to the shortage of teachers. It does this by utilizing the services of the master teacher for the instruction of large groups of students, thus spreading his influence beyond the confines of a single classroom. It also gives status and recognition to the best teacher, while making it possible for the inexperienced teachers to learn from him. In addition, it gives teachers an opportunity to plan together and evaluate together, thereby encouraging an intellectual cross-hybridization that is bound to result in more stimulating and productive lessons. This helps draw the teacher out of his isolated classroom ivory tower, and permits him to share with and learn from his colleagues. In some cases, two teachers of the same subject (*i.e.*, one teacher of English with unusual ability in teaching poetry, and another with skill in teaching technical aspects of grammar) can pool their specific abilities for the benefit of their merged classes.

One of the most attractive aspects of team teaching is its promise to free the teacher of tangential classroom routines that now absorb at least twenty per cent of his time—chores such as taking attendance, keeping records, marking papers, preparing displays, checking homework, *etc.* By this welcome relief from non-teaching duties, it allows more time to concentrate on thorough planning and on keeping abreast in one's field. By also providing opportunities to plan cooperatively with colleagues, it adds up to an improvement in that significant intangible of good teaching—teacher morale.

A critical examination of the other side of the coin reveals a number of weaknesses in the value of and the need for team teaching. For one thing, large-group instruction for the average high-school student may be unrealistic for the following reasons. There is an overemphasis on the transmission of knowledge as the goal of education—but, what the pupil learns is more important than what the teacher teaches. Untrained and immature adolescents are often not able to cope with the requirements of a lecture situation, in terms of notetaking, or concentration on the subject. There is a danger of excessive standardization, without regard to individual differences in range of ability and interest. The impersonal

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nature of the lecture situation ignores the values of on-the-spot critical thinking, questioning, evaluating, and guidance.

Recent studies of why teachers leave, or fail to enter teaching indicate that the chief reason is inadequate salary. For the same reason, the most able college graduates are not being attracted into the field of education. Shall we, the most prosperous nation on earth, permit ourselves to provide anything but the highest level of teaching competence for the future generations of citizens? It has been suggested that the best utilization of our manpower for teaching is to pay a suitable cultural salary, rather than to be satisfied with hoarding our declining pool of master teachers, many of whom came into the profession during the depression. When they retire, who will take their place?

The principal who is alert, realistic, and open-minded will evaluate the *pro's* and *con's* of team teaching. He will foster the type of climate in his school that will encourage his staff to adapt and try out those features that will be of the greatest ultimate value to his educational product—the student.

Summary of the presentation made by JAMES E. REESE

IN ORDER to overcome the inadequacies of a departmentalized program, a team organization was instituted on an experimental basis in grades seven and eight in September 1956 in the Allentown junior high schools. Since its inception, this experiment has experienced a number of modifications so that now there are twenty teams, eighty teachers, and about two thousand pupils participating.

Each team consists of four teachers—language, social studies, mathematics, and science—who are responsible for the basic program in the major subject areas taught in the seventh and eighth grade. Each subject is taught six periods per week; consequently, a double period occurs once a week in each subject. These four teachers each teach the same four sections; hence they make up a team.

For three periods a week, when the pupils are scheduled in minor subjects, teacher team meetings are scheduled. These meetings offer many distinct advantages to the team concept, and are really the heart of the program. Listed herewith are some of the advantages of the team approach when compared with the traditional mosaic type of scheduling pupils under the departmentalized program:

1. There is created a small organization which assumes the responsibility for the growth and development of the boys and girls assigned to the group of teachers. In this cooperative endeavor, the pupils meet a

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common accepted group of values interpreted somewhat differently by each of the four personalities in the team.

2. The guidance aspect of the team organization is perhaps its strongest point. A frequent complaint against the secondary school of today is that it has little concern for the individual pupil, and that the secondary school is traditionally a subject centered administrative unit. During the planning period, part of the time may be devoted to a discussion of pupils, their problems, their potentialities, and their accomplishments.

3. The daily planning period when teachers get together affords an opportunity also for conferences with pupils, parents, supervisors, reading consultants, the principals of the schools, or any other member of the staff to discuss any problems that arise.

4. Since the four sections are always scheduled in parallel, it is possible for the four teachers with their four sections to go on field trips as a group.

5. Furthermore, because of its parallel scheduling, it is very convenient to have all four groups come together at the same time for the use of resource people or to indulge in any activity which lends itself to a large-group meeting.

6. The double period makes it possible for each of the four teachers to carry on activities which might be limited by the traditional 45- to 50-minute scheduled periods of the mosaic plan. The block schedule makes it possible for pupils who have missed classes, because of illness or because of having difficulty with certain subject areas, to arrange with any of the team teachers for extra time or make-up.

7. The team meetings provide excellent in-service training opportunities for new or beginning teachers.

Summary of the presentation made by ALBERT K. TINK

TEAM teaching refers to the use of several instructors for a given subject within a schedule of large and/or small classes. Clerical aides, readers of papers, audio-visual aids, and consultants, as well as time to plan are considered essential for the operation of this teaching team.

Schools using team teaching report initially that this method gives opportunities to specialize in areas the teacher knows best, and pupils profit from this. Available, suitable space for large classes, scheduling, and number of team members would be the chief limiting factors. Team teaching permits more students to get the basic facts with one presentation which would be combined with instruction in small groups and individual assistance. The morale of team-teacher members is reported high, and perhaps an unexpected dividend is the professional in-service

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improvement with a school. Team teachers report there are fewer discipline problems in the large groups.

The supply of good teachers at any given time has probably never been adequate to meet the educational needs for any given national group of people nor will it probably ever be. Teachers' capabilities coupled with the use of modern technological devices extend their scope of influence. Witness the national and international classroom opportunities already in existence and television opportunities soon to provide world audiences. Small groups and individual attention will always be necessary to induce the best learning opportunities for students at all levels.

Reports about salaries for team members vary. Team members must be chosen for their particular knowledge, understanding, and attitudes about their subject and students; for the skills they possess in presenting subject matter clearly, enthusiastically, and meaningfully; and for ability to work with other team members. Teaching experience should not completely overshadow the other qualifications. The concept of "master" teacher may create problems. If there is enough additional work and responsibility for the chairman of the teaching team, perhaps that member should be paid for the additional work, but not for so-called superiority of teaching.

The administration faces the task of initiating, coordinating, and nurturing the team-teaching project. Their enthusiasm and support demonstrated in securing a malleable team; in providing opportunities for team members to attend summer schools, workshops, and to observe teams in action; in providing adequate equipment and facilities; in forming schedules which provide the large and small classes as well as convenient teacher-team planning periods; in evaluating the program as it affects the education of students; in guaranteeing flexibility of the program as it progresses from year to year; and their foresight in interpreting the program to the community are all ways in which they assist the teaching team.

Howard K. Smith suggested in the 1960 CBS annual program, "Year of Crisis," that "Education! More education! Still more education!" is the main solution to our local, state, national, and international problems of today. This is up-to-the-minute confirmation of H. G. Wells' statement, "Civilization is a race between education and catastrophe."

To meet the educational needs of a much larger population whose age differential is steadily and rapidly increasing, superior methods of teaching are needed. Team teaching is one way of meeting large groups and maintaining the advantages of teaching small groups. Combinations of team teaching could offer opportunities for implementation of a regional or national curriculum.

Learning is an individual, internal process. Any method which recognizes this and uses teaching methods consistent with the goals of the course will be of service. From early reports there is evidence that team-teaching can do this.

CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS IN SALARY SCHEDULES FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND VICE PRINCIPALS

CHAIRMAN: *Norman B. L. Ferguson*, Principal, Ridley Township Senior High School, Folsom, Pennsylvania

INTERROGATORS:

William S. Holland, Principal, Ryan Junior High School, Houston, Texas
Nicholas T. Mannos, Principal, Niles Township High School West, Skokie, Illinois

E. V. Mortenson, Principal, High School, Murray, Utah

Summary of the presentation made by MUREL G. BURDICK

MANY factors influence salaries of principals and vice-principals. We have felt that a percentage ratio is the best means to determine the ratio of administrative salaries. Other factors that should determine salary would be number of students, number of teachers, number of rooms, and type of organization. Those working on the six-six plan find combining junior high-school students with senior high-school students to be more difficult than just the senior high-school grades, such as the upper three, 10-11-12.

The following report is taken from a survey released in March 1960 to all high school and junior high schools. This study was made by the following committee: C. L. Luce, Chairman, Niles; Ronald Jurso, Vicksburg; Phil Hartman, Ludington.

Schools in Michigan are classified according to size: Class A is 1,000 or more; B is 500-999; C is 200-499; and D is 199 or less.

Class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	\$10,876	\$522	13	9.3	19	54	46	34	\$7,199	1.52
B	7,572	363	9.9	7.16	17	93	15	95	5,743	1.316
C	6,749	366	6.3	4.86	8	89	7	87	5,764	1.18
D-E	5,973	306	5.8	5.0	4	27	3	28	5,276	1.11
Jr. Hi	7,869	350	8.6	6.6	23	77	52	44	6,898	1.14

KEY

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Average salary in 1959-60 | 6. Contract term of one year |
| 2. Average salary increase over 58-59 | 7. Salary schedule—yes |
| 3. Average years of experience as prin. | 8. Salary schedule—no |
| 4. Average years in present position. | 9. Teachers' maximum salary average |
| 5. Contract term more than one year. | 10. Principal-teacher salary ratio |

Murel G. Burdick is Principal of the Senior High School, Muskegon, Michigan.

Superintendents replied more than 2 to 1 in favor of contract of more than one year for principals. They replied 218 to 177 that they were aware of the 1957-58 recommendations of the MASSP and the NASSP for a principal's salary based on a principal-teacher ratio; e.g. 1.95 for Class A on 12 months assignment. It is significant that not more superintendents were familiar with the recommendations. Referral to the March 1958 issue of *THE BULLETIN* should be made for the report. Most superintendents were sure their boards of education were unaware of the recommendations.

Comparison with 1957 survey: Average salaries increased in Class A schools about \$600; Class B remained about the same; Class C increased about \$600; Class D figures were not available for the 1957 survey; junior high school increased about \$150. Principal-teacher ratios dropped slightly in Class A from 1.55 to 1.52; increased in Class B from 1.26 to 1.33; increased in Class C from 1.11 to 1.17; increased in Class D-E from .99 to 1.11; and dropped in junior high school from 1.24 to 1.14. Average maximum teachers salaries increased in about the same proportion as principals salaries, except in Junior High which increased about \$650.00. Schools reporting assistant principals ranging from part-time to as high as five in one school, increased from 126 to 169. The biggest increase was in Class B. A & B schools have a 12-months year with vacations of 3 to 5 weeks; Classes C and D-E generally operate on a 10-month contract.

The following is a copy of the North Central Report for year 1960-61. This report is for about one-third of the Michigan Schools.

<i>Salary</i>	<i>Class D</i>	<i>Class C</i>	<i>Class B</i>	<i>Class A</i>
No Salary	4	8	3	2
Less than 5,000	2			1
5,000 to 5,499		1		
5,500 to 5,999	1	3		
6,000 to 6,499	2	18	1	
6,500 to 6,999		14	6	1
7,000 to 7,499		9	9	
7,500 to 7,999		15	16	3
8,000 to 8,499		4	13	1
8,500 to 8,999	1	1	14	2
9,000 to 9,499		2	7	3
9,500 to 9,999			10	11
10,000 to 10,499			6	6
10,500 or more		3	15	62
TOTAL	10	78	100	92

The assistant principalship is a job without portfolio. That's what a recent survey of schools in 101 major cities seems to imply. The survey conducted by an El Paso, Texas, committee on school organization indicates that, even in a larger school system, the assistant principalship is not yet "a well-defined function."

Look at the hodgepodge of titles the committee came across; principal's aide, vice-principal, submaster, apprentice, curriculum assistant, administrative assistant, cadet principal, teacher coordinator.

The assistant principal is employed for almost as many reasons as he has titles—among them: relieving the principal of specific duties and responsibilities, serving an apprenticeship before becoming principal, taking over for the principal whenever needed.

Not more than one out of seven schools has a written set of policies or rules pertaining to the assistant principal's job. Eight said specific duties are assigned to the assistant by the principal. In most cases the assistant works during the actual school year only. Most get a teacher's salary plus a monthly or annual stipend. Less than half of the schools pay their assistant principals uniform salaries regardless of the size of the building.

The difficulty I find in a salary adjustment for most principals and vice principals is that this group has little representation. The teachers' club usually is a vocal group representing the faculty, but unless the principals speak up for themselves, there is not much chance for them to voice their needs.

Summary of the presentation made by W. E. LOWE

DURING the past decade, the competition for the tax dollar at the local and state levels has become so keen that all proposals to provide more adequate salaries for teachers and administrative personnel must be based on accurate and representative information concerning the cost of living, earning power of individuals, and comparable rates of pay, both inside and outside the field of education. I believe it is becoming increasingly clear to most administrative personnel that a good salary scale for classroom teachers is a basic requirement for all concerned. It seems that there are at least three major trends developing in this field at present:

First, to regard adequate classroom teachers' salaries as the keystone of the entire education salary structure and to relate the salaries of all other professional personnel to the maximum salary of teachers.

W. E. Lowe is Principal of Central High School, Nashville, Tennessee. Enrollment, 1,340.

Second, to express the salary schedules of principals and other administrators in terms of an index ratio or percentage increment in comparison with the classroom teachers maximum salary with a Masters Degree as 100.00, and

Third, to state the salaries of teachers, administrators, and supervisors in terms of the maximum rather than the minimum salaries in these areas.

For the past several years, we have observed that most of our salary increases at both the county and state levels have come in the form of blanket raises by which each classroom teacher and principal received exactly the same amount, regardless of training, experience, service in the system, leadership, or administrative responsibility involved.

I cannot remember any increase in salary for being a principal in our county system since our original schedule was set up in 1945. The state of Tennessee did give one increase several years ago which was based on the training and experience of the individual, but even this did not allow any increment or recognition for administrative leadership and responsibility.

As a result of this policy in our county, the gap between the salaries of classroom teachers and principals with equal training and experience has been steadily decreasing percentage-wise to such an extent that the original differential set up in our schedule has been almost absorbed. For example, when our salary schedule was adopted in 1945, the index ratio of the principal's salary to the classroom teacher's was about 148.00. At the present time, this ratio has dropped to about 132.00—a loss of about 16 per cent for the principals in comparison. During this period in the neighboring Nashville City School System, any salary raise for classroom teachers brings about an automatic corresponding raise in the salary schedule of the secondary-school principals on a percentage basis. Consequently, their index ratio is still about 148.00 as compared to 132.00 in the county.

Because of these conditions, our secondary-school principals now feel that some adjustments should be made to bring our salary schedule more in accord with many other representative school systems in our country, including some in our own general area. A study of the secondary-school salary schedules of the Memphis, Chattanooga, and Knoxville areas indicates index ratios averaging 150.00 or more.

During the past several years, adjustments in principals salaries have lagged far behind pay increases for comparable employees in business and industry, and have even failed to keep pace with salary adjustments for classroom teachers, however inadequate these may be. For example, from 1939 to 1958, the average earnings of all employed people increased 208 per cent in general. During the same time the average earnings of classroom teachers increased only 125 per cent and the earnings of secondary-school principals increased only 97 per cent.

The National Secondary-School Principals Association recommends a principal's salary schedule of stated maximums based on a percentage differential above regular classroom teacher's salary with a Masters Degree as 100.00. This percentage differential stated for principals may and

probably should vary in different school systems according to taxable wealth available, size of the system, size of the school, professional preparation, and length of service in the system, but in general the following averages are recommended as commendable:

Schools under 500 enrollment—principals 140-160

Schools between 500-1,000 enrollment—principals, 160-180; vice principals, 130-150

Schools over 1,000 enrollment—principals, 175-195; vice principals, 145-165

In many schools there is a tradition that the salary of the principal must be higher than that of any classroom teacher in that school.

The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools which is the greatest accrediting agency of secondary schools in the southern area of our county, recently upheld this policy in the case of a member school in Tennessee. This school was placed on the dropped list until the board of education agreed to increase the salary of the principal to a point above that of any teacher in that school.

This report closes with a suggestion from this association that the great advantage of relating principals salaries to that of teachers is that any change in teachers salaries will automatically bring a proportionate increase in principals salaries. This will promote professional solidarity on the salary front as well as along the line of ethical practices and competence in our public school systems.

Summary of the presentation made by WALDRO J. KINDIG

THE salary status of the secondary-school principal has been under constant study in New Jersey since 1955. Both the New Jersey Education Association and the New Jersey Secondary-School Principals Association have acknowledged this need by making, individually and jointly, several intensive studies.

The first report in 1955 was titled "School Administrators Salaries in New Jersey." The Administrative Salary Commission of the New Jersey Education Association—a commission composed of professional administrators and of business and industrial representatives—recommended a salary for principals based on a ratio to teachers salaries. This ratio principle would determine the salaries of superintendents of schools and principals of elementary and secondary schools. Furthermore, the commission recommended no differentiation in salaries of elementary- or secondary-school principals. Since administrators disagreed on the specific ratios proposed and elementary- and secondary-school principals disagreed on a single salary ratio for all principals, the report of the commission was ineffective.

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In 1957 and in 1958, the New Jersey Secondary-School Principals Association pursued an independent study which proposed that the ratio principle be employed above the maximum teachers salary as established by the teachers' salary guide of the local school district. The proposal ratio represented a range of 1.6 to 2.0 for a ten-month contract plus an additional one tenth for an eleven-month or twelve-month contract. This proposal was approved by the Association, and copies of this study were transmitted to the New Jersey Superintendents Association, the New Jersey Education Association and the State Federation of District Boards of New Jersey. This study established the ratio principle of the principal's salary to the teachers' maximum salary.

A current study is being made by the New Jersey Secondary-School Principals Association on an analysis of the position of the principal. This study recognizes that a salary ratio of the principal's salary compared to the teacher's salary and requires analyses of the positions of both the principal and the teacher. This study, therefore, includes the development of criteria for both principals and teachers in position description, position analyses, position evaluation, position rating, and position pricing.

The most recent study of salary status, unpublished at the time of this writing, is "Median Salaries and Indexes of Trends (from 1954-1955 to 1960-1961) of Administrative Salaries Compared with Teachers Salaries in New Jersey." This study was conducted by the New Jersey Education Association. Selected data for this study follow:

Year	Teachers	Supt.	Median Salaries			Jr. H.S.
			H.S. Prin.	Jr. H.S. Prin.	H.S. Vice Prin.	Vice Prin.
1960-1961	\$5,868	\$12,250	\$10,317	\$9,867	\$8,462	\$8,600
1954-1955	4,274	8,082	7,208	6,844	6,516	6,300
Indexes of Trends						
1960-1961	100	2.09	1.76	1.68	1.44	1.47
1954-1955	100	1.89	1.69	1.60	1.52	1.47
Year	Number Guides Reported Using Ratio Principle in New Jersey (One district may have five for different positions)					Percentage
1960-1961	338					56
1959-1960	292					52
1958-1959	238					43
Year	No. Districts Having a Guide for High-School Principals		No. Districts Reporting a Ratio Guide for High-School Principals		Percentage	
1960-1961	81		55		68	
1959-1960	79		48		61	
1958-1959	78		42		54	

Note from these figures that throughout the State of New Jersey there is a trend by local school districts to provide a salary guide and to employ the ratio to teachers salaries in determining the salary of the high-school principal.

WHAT SOLUTION TO THE STUDY-HALL PROBLEM— PARKING LOT OR EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY?

CHAIRMAN: *Frederick P. Abel*, Principal, East High School, Aurora, Illinois

INTERROGATORS:

Ralph G. Bohrsen, Director, Rocky Mountain Area Project, State Department of Education, Denver, Colorado

B. L. Chalender, Principal, Junior High School, Manhattan, Kansas

Charles W. Mintzer, Principal, High School, Fair Lawn, New Jersey

Summary of the presentation made by JOSEPH J. DEVITT

Paper read by Philip A. Annas, Executive Director, Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, Augusta, Maine.

AT LEAST since the time of the National Survey of Secondary Education, a part of the scheduling process in secondary schools has been the assignment of pupils to study halls during the periods when they are not in class. Generally, study hall groups are larger than regular classes, often as large as the room will accommodate or as the principal believes his teachers can control. As a result, students from every ability grouping and grade level often are found in the same study hall.

Most school administrators long have decried the value of this type of study hall. They point to the discipline problems, which usually are more acute here than in regular classes. They assert that study halls are a waste of pupil time because so many pupils accomplish so little; a waste of teacher time because the teachers, trained for the professional tasks of teaching, usually spend these periods providing mere custodial service.

Many principals believe that the fewer study halls their pupils have, the more efficient will be their school. A large number of schools have moved from a seven- to a six-period day, and a few from a six- to a five-period day. Although a desire to decrease the length of the school day has often been a factor, a more compelling reason has been the elimination of one study hall from each pupil's school day every time the number of periods in the schedule has been reduced.

The value of true supervised study of a subject in the presence of the teacher of that subject is almost universally recognized. Some schools have scheduled sixty- and even seventy-minute periods to permit each teacher to provide supervised study time for his students in the subject he is teaching.

Conversely, there are secondary-school men who defend the value of the traditional study hall. They cite the common problem of pupils whose homes do not provide satisfactory conditions for studying. They are convinced that, in an orderly study hall, many pupils do accomplish a great

Joseph J. Devitt is Chief of the Bureau of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Augusta, Maine.

deal, and that it is a responsibility of the school to provide adequate control.

In the opinion of the writer, the best solution to this, as to most problems, lies somewhere in the middle. No pupil can secure full value from his high-school program without conscientious, consistent out-of-class study. Homework assigned only because it is expected, however, is a waste of both the teacher's and the pupil's time. The assignment should be an integral part of the teacher's long-term plan for promoting as efficiently as possible the educative growth of his pupils. Such assignments are more likely to be completed, either during school study periods or at home.

A five- or six-period day no longer is adequate if the school is to meet satisfactorily the educational needs of its pupils. We need at least seven periods each day to permit the enrollment of students in a balanced and comprehensive sequence of courses in the fundamental areas and the broad elective program most secondary-school curriculum men believe to be desirable.

Attempting to schedule a class assignment for each pupil each of the seven periods results in either an overload for many pupils or the use of assigned activities of dubious value. Most students should have at least one study hall each day. For one reason, there is little justification for employing a full-time librarian to work all day in a library from which pupils are excluded because they are in class every period. Also, a part of this period may be used occasionally for interviews with the guidance counselor.

Finally, in the opinion of the writer, one or two study halls each day for most pupils do not create problems that cannot be solved in an efficiently administered school which is staffed by reasonably competent teachers.

Summary of the presentation made by J. S. McCOLLUM

WHILE one of the prime responsibilities of the high school should be to help students develop independent study habits, there has been a movement in a number of Missouri high schools to eliminate what has been commonly called the study hall. For many years the normal school day in the major portion of Missouri high schools has consisted of a six-period day with class periods of approximately sixty minutes each. The average student took four units of work and in addition was enrolled in physical education and one study hall. With the recent trend toward additional training in mathematics, science, and foreign language, many

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students wished to enroll in five academic subjects thus leaving no time for a study period. Since many of the poorer students made little use of the study hall, a number of schools eliminated the regular study hall and suggested that teachers allow time for supervised study in the classroom. This movement has become rather widely spread in some areas.

As suggested above, one of the primary objectives of the school is the development of good study habits. In turn each teacher is responsible for teaching the necessary study skills in his particular subject. Students do not instinctively know how to study and, since study techniques differ in the different subject areas, the student must know how to study each subject if he is to make the maximum progress in his total school program.

If an effective program of teaching good study habits is to be developed, parents must feel that the learning of proper study habits is an integral part of their children's education and must be willing to establish a home environment that will furnish the proper conditions to facilitate this phase of their education. Parents will need help and must be made to feel that the school is willing and able to provide competent advice.

The first step in developing a program for training students to make proper use of their study time will be to set up a working committee composed of interested faculty members. If this group can develop a program that is effective as shown by use in their individual situations, the whole faculty will soon become involved. The faculty committee will need to study procedures used in other schools, contact publishers who supply materials relating to study skills and habits, and develop a suitable program for the local school.

In planning the program, the following areas of activity should be explored. Ways must be found to lead the student to feel a need for improving his study skills. He must see that it is important to plan a study schedule. He must have help in learning how to preview, how to take notes, how to organize and summarize these notes, and how to use them in review. Many students will need direction in how to make use of the library; others will need to know what are the best methods to be used in preparing for examinations. All will need tips on the best environment for making worth-while use of their study time.

Materials for use in developing a program of study direction for students may be secured from a number of sources. Only a limited number of publications may be mentioned here. *How To Study*, Preston and Botel, Science Research Associates Inc., Chicago, Ill.; *Tips*, New York State Counselors Ass'n, Delmar Publishers, Albany, New York; *Study Hints for High-School Students*, Gilbert Wrenn, Stanford University Press, Stanford, Cal.; and *Study Skills Workbook*, Scholastic Magazines, 33 West 42nd Street, New York 36, N. Y.

Summary of the presentation made by PAUL K. WALKER

THE reports of proceedings in the annual conventions during the past years contain many summaries of proceedings and discussions of the study hall. Most of these discussions questioned the educational value of the formal study hall of the past. Many studies have been made and new uses of the study hall have been suggested.

In a recent survey of the forty school districts in Utah, none of them is offering a formal study hall. There are some modified forms used. There are thirty-four districts that do not have a study hall. Utah schools are using a six-, modified six-, or seven-period day. This is determined by each district. In these schools, every student registers for a class each period of the day. Supervised study is conducted in the classrooms during the class period.

The remaining six districts are using a modified form of study hall that is as varied as the number of districts. Two of the largest districts in the state permit the seniors to petition the counselor for one period each day to study. The number permitted to register is limited to a small percentage. In some of the smaller districts where the student bodies are small, a similar policy is used. Students who for some reason have had difficulty in selecting seven classes each day are granted permission to register for one study period. Many of these schools are combined junior and senior high schools. Again permission is granted to seniors. There are a few exceptions where juniors are given this privilege.

It has been many years since Springville High School has had an organized study hall during the school day. We have a six-period day and every student is required to register for six classes. Part of the class period is used for supervised study.

We have done some experimenting with supervised study periods outside of the school day. It was at the request of a group of students that the teachers of typing and shorthand decided to use one half hour before and after school for students who wished to take advantage of supervised study. It is not always the same students who attend these study periods. Those who feel the need for help meet in the classrooms. One group of girls in shorthand stated a few days ago that they had difficulty learning shorthand until they participated in the class with teacher and advanced student help. This type of study has been used in the school for several years.

This year we have experimented with a study period for all students who wish to stay after school and get some help from teachers. Every Tuesday and Thursday, all the classrooms and library are kept open for an hour period after school. Students report to the teacher from whom they wish to receive help. No time limit is placed on the length of time

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they stay in any one room. This helps the boys and girls to develop better study habits for their individual study at home.

AN EXPERIMENT CONDUCTED BY THE S.H.S. SCIENCE CLUB

Upon investigating the study habits of our students, we found two problems that were obstructing their study habits. *First*, many of them did not have a satisfactory study area in the home; *second*, social pressures; *i.e.*, doing what was being done by their friends kept them from spending the time studying. We opened the school from 7:00 to 9:00 P.M. each Thursday. Four types of study area were provided:

1. The library was opened for silent, individual study. This was supervised by the school librarian assisted by club members.
2. Informal study rooms were held in classrooms where group study was allowed. There was no restriction on study-type noise. These areas were self-policed by the students with an occasional teacher check.
3. Laboratory areas for research project work were provided. One or two members of the science faculty supervised this.
4. A 10 (2-hour) period slide-rule class was held in the evening. It was open to adults and high-school students.

We see some possibilities in this after-school study period. We would like to try an experiment of assigning teachers who have been relieved from teaching during the school day to take a period after school to give supervision to students who may wish to remain at school to study.

HOW DEVELOP A DESIRABLE STUDENT BEHAVIOR POLICY?

CHAIRMAN: *J. R. McElhinney*, Principal, Senior High School, Albert Lea, Minnesota

INTERROGATORS:

Charles Secoy, Principal, High School, Troy, Ohio

Harry E. Stoneburner, Principal, High School, New Carlisle, Indiana

Lloyd W. Waller, Principal, Mira Costa High School, Manhattan Beach, California

Summary of the presentation made by JACOB J. ZION

OUR Florida schools operate under a county system and all schools in a county come under the jurisdiction of the county school board. The Henry H. Filer Junior High School operates under the policies of the School Board of Dade County, Florida.

Jacob J. Zion is Principal of Henry H. Filer Junior High School, 531 West 29th Street, Hialeah, Florida.

We are located in Hialeah, Florida, which is one of the fastest growing areas in our country. The school is over-crowded, and we utilize ETV in large classes (over 400) in order to handle the large enrollment with our present facilities. We are teaching seventh-grade science, eighth-grade history, and ninth-grade civics in these classes.

In our opinion, no school can operate successfully without the good will and understanding of the parents. We work toward this objective through the following activities: (a) we have a very active PTA; (b) we run a successful "back-to-school" night; (c) a letter is sent to all parents explaining the school's homework policies; and (d) the school calendar provides three parent-teacher conference days, with no students in school, for parents and teachers mutually to exchange information for the benefit of the student.

Behavior is best when it comes from within. We utilize student leadership and cooperation through our student council, student courtesy corps, safety patrol, various interest clubs, and a very active intramural program. These are utilized as a means of building school spirit and improving pupil behavior.

Administrative machinery and personnel have a great deal to do with policies, because they are useless if they cannot be carried out. Our secondary school now has a principal and three assistant principals: administration, guidance, and curriculum. The assistant principal for administration handles attendance and discipline problems. The assistant principal for guidance coordinates and supervises the guidance staff and guidance services of the school. The assistant principal for curriculum supervises and coordinates teacher planning, materials, methods, and techniques. This gives the principal the opportunity to coordinate these important phases and to apply himself to the over-all administration of the school.

Our procedures for improving behavior operate in the following manner: when a student exhibits undesirable behavior in class, the classroom teacher attempts to handle the problem first. If unsuccessful, the student is referred to the appropriate guidance counselor who may refer the student further to the assistant principal for guidance. Parents are contacted and called in for conferences. The visiting teacher may make home visits if contact cannot be otherwise made, or referrals may be made to the child guidance clinic for psychological evaluation when this help is indicated. If these procedures fail, or when administrative or punitive measures are deemed necessary, the referral is made to the assistant principal for administration. He then applies corrective action and, when necessary, refers the case for final decision, at the local school level, to the principal.

This is our first year of operation with assistant principals. In the past we used deans and a curriculum assistant. The procedures are not radically different; we have merely adjusted duties between administration and guidance. Any school which has deans and guidance personnel may adopt these procedures.

Summary of the presentation made by J. KEITH KAVANAUGH

THE development of our policies designed to stimulate desirable student behavior are based on: (1) the opportunity for the students to participate in certain areas of the operation of the school; (2) the commitment of the student body to certain goals. These goals are: (a) to help each student develop the maturity of judgment necessary for the effective operation of the school and society, (b) to aid the student in self-discipline, (c) to assist the student in developing an appreciation and respect for the rules and regulation set forth by duly constituted authority, and (d) to provide the student with those experiences which will give him an understanding of how our democratic society functions.

There are two facets of our program through which we attempt to develop and carry out policies related to desirable student behavior. One is based on the organization of our home rooms. Like most high schools, we have a home-room organization for guidance and administrative purposes. From our home rooms, two sets of representatives are elected. One set consists of one delegate and one alternate for the student council; the other set consists of one delegate and one alternate for the cabinet of each class. The student council with their sponsor meets for twenty-five minutes each day during an alternate lunch period to discuss business relating to the general operation of the school. Cabinets with their sponsors meet daily for twenty-five minutes to discuss and make recommendations relating primarily to class activities. I try to meet with each group once a week.

The other facet of our policies relating to the encouragement of desirable student behavior deals with the development and operation of an organization known as the Student Service Organization. The stated purposes of the Student Service Organization are: "To provide student supervision in study halls, corridors, library service, locker control and to create within the student body a self-discipline and respect for school regulations."

The operation of this organization directly involves some 400 students daily. We have assigned a full-time faculty sponsor to the organization. The operation of the organization has resulted in a pyramid-type organizational structure, the governing body is the executive board. Under the direction of the executive board, students are assigned specific tasks and responsibilities which permeate the whole structure of the school. The main task of the SSO is supervision of study halls. All of our study halls are supervised by students of the SSO. In the operation of a student organization such as this, problems are always present. One of the major problems with which one must continually contend is that of internal and external discipline. Internally, the organization has a closely supervised

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plan for inducting members from the general student body into the organization, and then a continued program of in-service training and evaluation of the personnel in the organization.

It is in external discipline that one would normally expect to find the greatest number of problems. However, problems in this area have been few indeed. A student who breaks a rule in study halls and in the corridors, may, and is urged, to appeal any decision or air any grievance with the faculty director or his school administrator. No student is held "captive" by another student without a point of faculty appeal. Legal problems are involved in the operation of such an organization, but they are not insurmountable. Surveys of students' reaction to this kind of supervision indicate that they are well pleased with the operation of the Student Service Organization, and they hope that it continues.

Summary of the presentation made by DAVID A. MACNICOLL

THE content of a student behavior policy does not insure its success. Two phases of the policy often minimized in formulating a policy are to a great extent the determiners of success. It is to the initial development and the later administering of a behavior policy that I direct my remarks.

Before formulating a policy, the administrator must make several basic decisions. *First*, is this policy going to be the result of a combined staff effort, or is it to be the result of an administrative decree? Naturally, the final decision should be based upon the results of the administrator's evaluation of his staff's ability and experiences. Ideally, a policy jointly developed by teachers, administrators, and students is desirable. The latter group is recommended if we are involved with high-school students. In many instances the student councils are included in the development of student behavior policies. The incorporation of all groups mentioned assures a better understanding and a more enthusiastic reception by all involved in the administration and participation of a policy.

Second, a decision must be made concerning the basic principles upon which any policy is to be developed. After considerable investigation of numerous behavior policies, I have come to recognize several basic principles. It is upon these that our policy has been developed.

1. *Respect*. The goal of any policy should be directed toward developing within all students an attitude of respect for his peers, teachers, school, school property, and parents. Attainment of this goal will result in the fulfillment of a general aim of American education.

2. *Fairness*. This fine quality of satisfactory human relations must not be neglected. The weighing of each and every aspect of the policy must be made

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so that each may be placed in its proper perspective. Penalizing students more severely for relatively minor violations and ignoring major school offenses is most tragic; however, examination of many policies will expose this error.

3. *Understanding.* It is unfortunate if behavior policies are developed without providing the administrator with the opportunity to deviate from its requirements when situations dictate it to be necessary.

Acceptance of these principles upon which we have developed our policy is not the essential point. Acceptance of the philosophy which recognizes the premise of ascertaining one's principles before establishing a policy is most important.

The second essential of a sound policy is based upon the efficiency with which it may be administered. To this end a basic principle of our democratic society is applied. The administrator must be absolutely certain that all who are involved with the policy are clearly informed of its scope. This definitely includes teachers, parents, and, most important, the students. It is true that ignorance of the law is not a recognized excuse; however, we are to be reminded of the age of those regulated by our policy.

When all are clearly informed, we must then insure that consistency is the course to be followed. Too often teachers make the mistake of overlooking a school violation with one student although they hold others to the letter of the law. A behavior policy should be concerned with those school procedures which are usually out of the normal jurisdiction of the teacher. We believe that the classroom teacher is responsible for the standards of behavior within his classroom. This does not preclude that all situations of student behavior can be handled by teachers. When a policy is utilized, the teacher must be consistent. Inconsistency of action has been the basis for the failure of many behavior policies.

Basically, the development of a behavior policy is as dependent upon adequate planning as are all phases of satisfactory school administration.

WHAT'S THE SCORE ON PROVISIONS OF THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT?

CHAIRMAN: *Carl G. F. Franzen*, 814 East Side Drive, Bloomington, Indiana; Emeritus Professor of Secondary Education, Indiana University

CONSULTANTS:

Edmund A. Ford, Specialist for Secondary-School Organization and Administration, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Christian E. Burckel, Publisher, The College Blue Book, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York

PANEL:

Max W. Barrows, Deputy Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Montpelier, Vermont

Howard V. Hennigar, Principal, High School, Natick, Massachusetts

Otto V. Walker, Principal, High School, Sandusky, Ohio

J. C. Blair, Director, Division of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Montgomery, Alabama

Summary of the presentation made by MAX W. BARROWS

NDEA has been quite effective in upgrading instructional activity in Vermont. This has been achieved in spite of obvious obstacles. Our small and scattered population, limited resources, persisting tradition of conservatism have retarded the consolidation of school districts. Moreover, due to a state-wide trend towards austerity, the legislature failed to appropriate state matching funds for the administration of NDEA, Title III, until the summer of 1959. In spite of these difficulties, and our late start, achievements in this field are quite significant.

Our problems, shared by other states, have grown out of a lag created by rapid developments in the theory and practice of mathematics, science, and modern foreign languages. Out of this lag grew two needs, the modernization of instructional plants and equipment and the re-education of teaching staffs in these subjects.

NDEA funds were used to enlarge our State Department personnel by employing a consultant of mathematics and science and one in modern foreign languages. Their first duty was to explain to local schools how reimbursement for local expenditures for new equipment could be obtained. This was achieved through a series of regional meetings with the secondary-school teachers of the state. The meetings acted as forums for the discussion of professional self-improvement, recent curriculum developments, and new techniques. Other outcomes of the meetings have been the development of regional organizations of mathematics and

Max W. Barrows is Deputy Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Montpelier, Vermont.

science teachers. In the area of curriculum tools, guides for physics and modern foreign languages are being actively developed while our curriculum guide in elementary science was released in 1960. We have also organized state advisory committees in modern foreign languages, mathematics, and science to encourage and guide the development of curricula and the introduction of other instructional improvements.

Of our 81 public high school districts, 78 have submitted at least one project requesting the purchase of new equipment or reference material, and 34 per cent of our high schools have submitted projects involving the remodeling of classrooms or laboratories.

A limited number of secondary schools have completely remodeled and re-equipped their physical or biological science laboratory. Two secondary schools have installed 30-booth language laboratories with a console, four other schools have a laboratory with a lesser number of booths, a planetarium costing \$12,000 has been approved for one school system, and another school has requested a physical science laboratory for advanced students as a science seminar.

Our state plan has been amended to include the purchase of television receivers, antenna, and closed circuit television as well as equipment for "programmed learning." Local projects totaling over \$365,000 have been approved for Vermont Schools during the past eighteen months.

Our instructional program in mathematics, science, and modern foreign languages has been upgraded since the implementation of NDEA by improving curriculum materials, expanding the professional background of teachers, providing consultant services, and adding modern instructional equipment and materials.

Summary of the presentation made by HOWARD V. HENNIGAR

THE Massachusetts Department of Education did not begin the distribution of funds under Title III, NDEA, until the school year 1959-60. Activities for the school year 1958-59 under this title were largely preparational in nature. Emphasis for the year 1959-60 was on the acquisition of equipment in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages, and the minor remodeling necessary for the use of the equipment and materials purchased.

The State Department of Education did not encourage expenditure at any particular grade level or in any particular subject area. This was left entirely to the discretion of the local school authorities who were judged best able to know where the local needs are greatest.

During the school year 1959-60, of the 351 cities and towns of the Commonwealth, 263 received federal funds under Title III. This repre-

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sented \$1,155,000 paid out by the state, or an expenditure of \$2,463,000 combined state and local funds for 983 separate projects. A breakdown of the state figure showed that of the \$1,155,000 expended, 66 per cent, or \$762,300, was for science; 6 per cent, or \$69,300, was for mathematics; and 28 per cents, or \$323,400, for foreign language.

A measure of the accomplishment of these expenditures is particularly noticeable in the area of the language laboratory. Prior to NDEA there were only three modern language laboratory installations in the public schools of three cities and towns of the Commonwealth. As a result of Title III, there are ninety-nine such installations in 56 cities and towns.

For the school year 1960-61 to this date, there have been several noticeable trends developing. Modern foreign language projects have been more concerned with installations in junior high schools, and science projects for the elementary schools have noticeably increased. These requests have included many portable science laboratories as well as numerous science kits.

Perhaps a unique feature of the Massachusetts State Plan for Title III provides that personnel employed under this title may be used to hold and distribute equipment acquired without charge from industrial and other agencies.

The Senior Supervisor of Science and Mathematics has worked with the New England Council on a project for the utilization of surplus industrial equipment and materials in schools. Several schools have already materially benefited through this program.

Under Title V, there has been a marked increase in the supervision, assistance, and services offered by the office of guidance of the State Department of Education. The pre-NDEA staff of one supervisor has been increased to seven, and four full-time clerks are employed in the office.

Federal funds of \$374,427 were available during 1959-60 for the improvement of guidance services. During the year, the sum of \$327,930 was distributed to local public school systems and private schools; \$324,870 of this amount to the public secondary schools for guidance and counseling; \$1,030 for public school testing only; and \$2,030 for private school testing.

Partially because of the state requirements of eligibility for Title V funds, only 145 school systems of the 351 cities and towns in the Commonwealth received guidance and counseling funds as well as testing funds. Five schools received testing money only.

There was a considerable increase in guidance activities throughout the Commonwealth. A number of school systems reduced the pupil-counselor ratio from an average of 600 to 1 to 500 to 1 (or lower). The influence of the NDEA, with state plan standards, has been reflected by greatly increased guidance staffs. The 145 schools with approved guidance and counseling programs employed 761 guidance persons during 1959-60. This figure is 182 more than were employed the year before in all of the 351 cities and towns of the state.

Summary of the presentation made by OTTO V. WALKER

TO ASSESS the effect upon the improvement of education as a consequence of the National Defense Act at this early date would be folly. At best, one can tabulate the changes affected through the implementation of this legislation. We can then assume that, with added services, new and better teaching tools, better trained teachers, and increased emphasis, we are better accepting the Congress implied responsibility for the security of this nation through improved education.

A Cinderella-like transformation in Ohio's Guidance and Testing program has taken place in the past two years. The National Defense Act last year alone pumped \$780,000 into the guidance and testing programs of Ohio schools. Prior to 1958, the total guidance services offered by the State Department of Education consisted of two supervisors, a secretary, and a stenographer buried in the division of Vocational Education. Today a two-year-old Division of Guidance and Testing operates out of a modern two-story building and employs ten guidance supervisors and twenty clerical employees on an annual budget of over \$900,000.

Ohio school systems participating in Title V have jumped from 103 to 274 during the 18 months since NDEA support began. The impetus of Federal money and state level supervisor activity have afforded Ohio school children an *additional guidance service* that this year will exceed the \$2 million mark. This increase in approved programs will permit a return of only 34.6 per cent of the expense instead of the NDEA specified 50 per cent.

Ohio's secondary schools employed the equivalent of 1,100 full-time counselors in 1959-60. Of this number, 188 counselor equivalents represent growth made possible during 1959-60 by NDEA assistance, or an increase from 323 counselor equivalents employed by NDEA participating schools in 1958-59 to 511.2 counselor equivalents in 1959-60. The counselor-pupil ratio changed from 1:553 in 1958-59 to 1:426 in 1959-60.

Title III has had a tremendous impact upon the improvement of instruction in science, mathematics, and foreign language. Projects costing just under \$7 million have been approved to October 30, 1960. Of this outlay, 81 per cent was for science equipment, 6 per cent for mathematics, and 13 per cent for foreign language and 799 of Ohio's 1,113 schools participate. We cannot yet assess the results, but we can assume a considerable enrichment of the educational experience from the new equipment and tools of instruction afforded. The greatest change in method of instruction has taken place in the foreign language field. Over 100 language laboratories have been approved for purchase since May 1959.

Otto V. Walker is Principal of Sandusky High School, Sandusky, Ohio. Enrollment, 1,400.

Ohio is not unique in that some districts experience difficulty in providing local funds to match the available Federal funds. Too, several cities in Ohio have not participated because of "principle" or fear of Federal control. Funds not used by these districts are allotted for completion of high cost projects elsewhere.

The score in Ohio is not complete without a recognition if not an evaluation of the benefits accruing through the provision of the NDEA providing for indirect assistance.

Many teachers have been in attendance at foreign language institutes or centers for the improvement of skills and the effectiveness of teaching modern foreign languages. Mathematics and science teachers have taxed the existing facilities in taking advantage of the opportunity to upgrade themselves through the National Science Foundation. Counseling and guidance institutes are filled early thus increasing the supply and improving the competence of those already on the job.

Provisions for experimentation and research in the educational uses of TV, movies, radio, and related media account for the fact that Ohio schools are "tooling up" to utilize such facilities. The success of NDEA in Ohio has demonstrated that it is possible to have Federal support for schools without Federal control.

Summary of the presentation made by J. C. BLAIR

IN THE first place, I would like to say that if I had any choice, I would much prefer general Federal aid to education across the board because I feel that it would mean a great deal more to our total educational program and keep in balance and focus other areas of education in addition to the fields covered under the National Defense Education Act. I would hasten to say that this means, however, that I am heartily in favor of the continuation of the kinds of support that we have now under the NDEA for the fields of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages; but, I would prefer that it be a part of a broad program of general Federal aid to our schools. I would go so far as to say that I would be in favor of the continuation of the present NDEA program as it now exists without any changes being made in it if it becomes expedient to follow this course. However, if it would be possible to make some changes without jeopardizing the entire program as it presently exists, I would be in favor of the following alterations in the program:

1. *Title III*—Financial assistance for strengthening science, mathematics, and modern foreign language instruction in elementary or secondary schools. The operation of the provisions of this Title in our state has been very satisfactory as a whole. The state has been receiving about \$1.3 million annually to be spent in these areas. During the short time

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that we have had this aid, it has served as a great stimulus in our local schools throughout the state to build up to a marked degree the inadequate equipment and supplies that existed for teaching in these areas of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. However, I am fully convinced that at least this amount of aid that we are now receiving should be continued for several years to come in order that the stimulation for local schools to overcome their deficiencies can be realized. In many schools where I have visited, although noticeable progress has been made, there is need for continued expenditure to make the schools effective in every respect.

2. *Title V—Dealing with guidance, counseling, and testing: identifying and encouragement of able students.* This has proved to be a most worth-while program in our state schools. I would enthusiastically endorse the continuation of this part of the NDEA. Again, though, if it is possible to make some changes in this Title, I would like to recommend that the amount of Federal aid in this area be considerably increased. There is need for a great deal of Federal aid under this Title for the employment of consultants in counseling and guidance in our local school systems. For example, under the allocation which comes to Alabama, we receive \$303,000 for Title V, yet we have 11,524 high-school teacher units in Alabama. The state does have a state-wide testing program for high-school students, but, after the expense of this state-wide testing program is deducted, there remains only about \$279,000 of Federal funds under this Title which must be matched by the local school systems. This would mean that there would be only about \$25 per teacher of Federal funds to take care of the important service that might be rendered by a trained person as consultant in counseling and guidance.

Following these figures a step further, this would mean that, in a twenty-teacher high school, there would be only \$500 from the Federal funds to go on the salary of a counselor. According to our state program there should be a full-time counselor for every 300 pupils enrolled. You can see the difficulty of getting the services needed especially in a state that is relatively low in financial resources unless there is a marked increase in the amount of funds to stimulate this service as an important and vital part of the program. Continuous evaluation of programs within each state by state personnel should be required. The summer institutes should be lengthened and greater emphasis put on semester and full-year institutes.

3. *Title VIII—Financial assistance in training individuals for employment as highly skilled technicians in occupations requiring scientific knowledge in fields necessary for the national defense.* This is certainly a step in the right direction, and I would be in favor of this part of the Act being continued, but I feel that it could be greatly strengthened by making some changes. I would like to recommend that there should be a change in this Title where it says "occupations requiring scientific knowledge" so as to cover any field of a skilled trade essential to national defense.

WHAT KIND OF GUIDANCE SERVICES FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Mrs. Kathryn G. Hurst*, Principal, Millard Lefler Junior High School, Lincoln, Nebraska

INTERROGATORS:

Ralph R. Lester, Principal, Junior High School, Ponca City, Oklahoma
Frank Marino, Principal, Riverside Junior High School, Morgantown, West Virginia

Walter L. McNutt, Principal, Garfield Junior High School, Albuquerque, New Mexico

Summary of the presentation made by GENE ENGELHARDT

BECAUSE of the wide variation in grade organization within the St. Louis area schools, the picture of guidance services becomes extremely complex. The area has three distinct school populations. The St. Louis County schools enroll approximately 118,000 students. The St. Louis City schools enroll approximately 107,000 students. The Parochial schools enroll approximately 90,000 students.

The city and Parochial schools have no junior high-school programs. Each system maintains elementary schools from kindergarten through eighth grade and high schools from ninth through twelfth grade. However, the city schools are planning to operate next year a seventh- and eighth-grade experimental center which will enroll seven to eight hundred students.

In St. Louis County there are twenty-seven independent school districts. Three of these districts combine the junior and senior high-school programs, and one district maintains only the elementary grades. Therefore, there are twenty-three school districts operating twenty-eight junior high-school programs. Of these twenty-eight schools, sixteen include grades 7-8-9, nine include grades 7-8, one includes grades 6-7-8, one includes grades 8-9, and one includes only grade 8. Thus, the difficulty in summarizing guidance practices within the St. Louis area junior high schools is obvious.

Many leaders in the field of education suggest that the effectiveness within a guidance program depends largely upon counselor-student ratio. One counselor per 250 to 300 students has been recommended. In St. Louis County only one district reports this ratio. Eight districts report 300 to 400 students per counselor. Fifteen districts report 400 to 1,000 students per counselor, and three districts report no guidance counselor for junior high-school students.

Gene Engelhardt is Principal of Lindberg Junior High School, 4900 S. Lindbergh, St. Louis, Missouri. Enrollment, 1,158.

A survey of practices in the county schools has shown that the guidance programs in junior high schools are operated similarly to those in the high schools. The responsibilities include: (1) the administration and evaluation of tests and the interpretation of the results to parents, students, and teachers; (2) referrals to the Special District for handicapped children, to other agencies, and to other special personnel within the respective districts; (3) contributions to cumulative records; (4) individual conferences with students (usually on a routine basis by seeing each student once per year or semester or by referrals from principals and teachers); and (5) information to students concerning their educational, vocational, and personal plans and adjustments.

In addition to these responsibilities, some districts were found to be: (1) supplying students with handbooks of information about the junior high school; (2) distinguishing and placing students in an accelerated program; (3) conferring with parents once a year to discuss test results and student progress; (4) assisting with the placement of students in homogeneous groups; (5) conducting surveys to assist teachers with the instructional program; or (6) assisting core teachers who act as counselors for their groups.

Group guidance was found in nearly half of the county schools. Several of these schools have home-room teachers, core teachers, or classroom teachers conducting this program. Six schools have counselors conducting the program. In two of these schools, time is taken from regular class periods while, in four of these schools, time is scheduled for a guidance class. In one of these schools, Lindbergh Junior High School, a guidance class conducted by a counselor is scheduled once per week during the first semester of seventh grade and once per week during the last semester of eighth grade. The seventh-grade program includes such topics as Orientation to Junior High School, the Guidance Program, Understanding Yourself and Others, Making Friends, Your School, Study Habits, Teenage Problems, and Growing Up. During the eighth grade, the program advances to Self Evaluation, Vocational Study, and Educational Planning.

We feel this program has been the most successful approach to junior high-school guidance. *First*, more time can be spent with each pupil, a more thorough orientation program can be executed, and more information can be supplied to each student. *Second*, working in a group is often an effective way to encourage individual adjustment within the group as well as to encourage a change in the entire group. *Last*, the student often becomes aware of his need for individual counseling and feels free to approach the counselor. A majority of our conferences are now student initiated.

Summary of the presentation made by A. TODD FOUTY

IT WOULD seem that one of the basic problems in providing guidance services for the junior high school is one of coordination and organization. It is only through such means that the efforts of all can be recognized, that a plan of action can be instituted, and that the various facets of guidance can be placed in their proper perspective. Regardless of the curricular structure of a school, which may help or hinder, a plan of action seems essential.

Our guidance program has been developed, and is being further developed, from such plan of action. Previous to this development, such questions as "What is your guidance program?" or "What do you do in guidance?" would have received rather vague answers. Today each teacher in the school should be able to describe what the guidance program is and be able to recognize its proper place and function in the total program. As such, he is better able to perform the guidance role.

The program centers around the home-room, block, or core teacher who has the responsibility for some sixty students or two sections. This teacher handles the language arts-social studies phase of the curriculum in addition to guidance or counseling duties. Each such teacher has a group or section for thirteen periods each week, has four or five planning periods, and two or three periods designated on the schedule as counseling periods.

The home-room teacher is the recipient, recorder, and manager of the cumulative records for each student. These include the usual records with attendance, grades, anecdotal notes, test scores, *etc.* The home-room teacher has at least one scheduled conference with all of the student's teachers. This conference is usually held prior to the fall parent conference for which he is also responsible.

With a background of information from the records, advice and suggestions from the student's other teachers, a firm contact with the parent, and direct and lengthy daily contact with the student, the home-room teacher is in an enviable position to work most effectively with the student. While certain phases of group guidance may be handled during regular class time, the individual student contact is made in class, after school, or during the scheduled counseling period. A plan can then be developed with other teachers, trained social workers, assistant principal, and/or principal being called into action.

Further planning will no doubt bring refinements. At this time, it would seem that greater recognition of the guidance function has been achieved and that quick and effective action on the part of many can be brought into play. All teachers have a role to play and recognize their place in the total program. It has also been found that some one person must be brought into the role of coordinating the efforts of all, more

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scheduled counseling time should be made available, and that, as the possibilities in guidance are further recognized, there will be greater need for the trained social worker or counselor.

Summary of the presentation made by LERUE WINGET

SURELY this topic is a timely one. Our national survival rests largely upon our ability to utilize our human resources properly. The United States can no longer afford the luxury of unnecessary bungling, wasted time, and dissipation of talents. In a free society, the individual plays an important role in decision making relative to his life activities. Hence, intelligent decisions by the individual are of the utmost significance.

Guidance Services for Junior High-School Students. If, in fact, junior high-school students are to make intelligent and satisfying decisions regarding life activities, they must be provided adequate guidance services. Furthermore, the services provided in the junior high school must be those appropriate to the ages of its student body. The following are considered to constitute a defensible set of guidance services for the junior high school: (1) counseling; (2) individual inventory; (3) orientation; (4) information; (5) placement; and (6) follow-up.

Suggested Emphases for Each Grade Level. Having listed a set of services, I would now like to depart somewhat from this framework to discuss emphases according to grade level and student needs. As Ichabod Crane was harassed by the headless horseman as a result of his emphasis on certain extracurricular activities, so we in the junior high are sometimes plagued by results of misplaced emphases. To list a set of services is one thing; to suggest the focus these services might take at each grade level is yet more difficult. Realizing, however, that continual change emerges in students as they pass through the early secondary-school years and that we have been somewhat guilty of misplaced emphases, such an endeavor seems vital. Hence, the following are suggested:

Emphasis in the seventh grade should be on "orientation" to secondary education in general and in a specific way to the junior high school. Students should become acquainted with the faculty, school rules and policies, school program, and social activities. They should receive assistance in understanding personality and its close relationship to success in education and ultimately to adjustment into satisfactory living in the total society.

By the eighth grade, students should be ready to look closely at self-appraisal. Each student should become more fully aware of his own interests, skills, strengths, and weaknesses and of his physical, social, emotional, and intellectual self.

Students in the ninth grade should be able to visualize a more realistic concept of self and should be ready to explore as many vocational opportunities as possible. They need to learn of the world of work; to understand job

Lerue Winget is State Director of Secondary Education, Room 223, State Capitol Building, Salt Lake City, Utah.

requirements, training, and standards of living. Vocational aptitude tests should be given to help students clarify their thinking in terms of the future and to assist them in acquiring a basis for sound educational planning for senior high school.

Some may take exception to what might be considered a heavy emphasis on assisting students in developing broad, tentative occupational goals at the ninth-grade level. To those who take exception I would say that the answer to the question, "What am I going to do to make a living?" is an important one. The ninth grade is not too early for some serious thinking on this subject. Changing direction is not too serious; wandering aimlessly is serious. A "committed" student tends to exhibit a more positive attitude and greater achievement in the secondary school and wastes less time than does the student without a goal.

In the past counselors have been rather inadequately trained to provide occupational information and counseling. Too much of the available counselor's time also has been devoted to a few pupils with serious problems or to constant minor social crises of young adolescents and far too little to other aspects of the program. As a result, the dissemination of occupational information has all too often been sadly neglected. Utah is presently engaged in a project to help correct this situation in the junior high schools of our state. Research grants are being used for this purpose.

Organization for Guidance Services. Once guidance services have been identified, the next step is one of organizing to perform them. There are numerous considerations which enter into this task. The following deserve consideration:

1. Counseling personnel must be selected who not only have training for the work, but, who, in addition, are well accepted by the faculty, the administration, and the students.
2. The counselor's load should be such that the task can be done well. Conant's recommendation of one counselor to every 250-300 students is a worthy goal but is as yet far from being achieved.
3. Duties assigned to a counselor should be compatible with one another.
4. The role of the classroom teacher in the guidance program should be clarified and encouraged.
5. Block-time scheduling should be used, at least in the seventh grade.
6. Home-room programs in which teachers remain with a designated group throughout the junior high-school years can be very helpful.
7. Under the leadership of the principal, an integrated guidance chart should be constructed indicating the assignment of responsibilities for guidance services among the administration, the teachers, and the counselors of a school.

Evaluation of Program. Guidance programs, like other programs of the junior high school, need periodic evaluation. One excellent instrument which provides a guide for evaluating the guidance services along with the other phases of the junior high school is the *Junior High School Evaluative Criteria* developed in Utah and for sale through the State Department of Public Instruction, Room 223, State Capitol Building, Salt Lake City, Utah.

THE EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL IMAGE OF AMERICA OVERSEAS

CHAIRMAN: *Margaret L. Hotaling*, Principal, Kamehameha School for Girls, Honolulu, Hawaii

INTERROGATORS:

Douglas M. Bivens, Director of Curriculum and Supervision, Washington County Schools, Hagerstown, Maryland

Gwendolyn E. Kean, Principal, Charlotte Amalie High School, St. Thomas, Virgin Islands

C. L. Munden, Assistant Staff Director, Education Division, Office of Armed Forces Information and Education, Department of Defense, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by **WILLIAM H. MORRIS**

NO SINGLE image of America overseas exists; there are many, sometimes conflicting images, which are often shopworn stereotypes, with some earlier basis in fact. Images vary from country to country, from society to society depending in part on their own cultural backgrounds. These latter influence what they select as representing America, from the many bits of information they see and hear through the various media of communication, from American visitors and tourists, and so on. Getting a clear, valid picture of the United States is further complicated by the fact that we are not a monolithic society; we represent a diversity within a unified society. In fact, it may be argued that persons in some parts of the United States do not completely understand those in all other parts; that is, they don't get a clear "image." We speak the same language, more or less, but have different historic experiences.

Among the factors in the backgrounds of other countries that influence their views of the United States are: literacy, social conventions, nationalism, previous experience with feudalism, history as an independent nation, economy, family organization, and the like. People of all societies carry with them various assumptions about what is "proper," what is effective in personal and social action, even what is true. Most societies also have developed certain myths about the glory of their own past and the goodness of their institutions. There are persons, both native and foreign, furthermore, who labor to produce certain effects in a society; such persons may regard their purposes as exemplary, up-lifting, even noble, but the purposes are sometimes selfish ones, and the images they produce are sometimes distortions. Not all public relations men, missionaries, even educators are exempt from this suggestion. Hence, it is extremely difficult

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for a valid image of another people, or of another government which truly represents the views of its people, to "come through" at a given point in time.

Among the views generally held by many persons in several countries, at least in Europe and Asia, are these: (1) America as a nation, and Americans individually, are very wealthy (relatively speaking, except in comparison with very few countries, this is entirely true). (2) The United States is industrially and technologically advanced (but they can hardly dream of the extent). (3) Americans are efficient, hard workers, (this is relatively true, but they sometimes give us too much credit; we are probably not incontestably in first place). (4) Most of our activity, especially abroad, is directed to combatting Communism (even when in fact, it is not). (5) We are extremely kind and hospitable to foreigners (largely true, but people of many societies are the same). (6) Americans observe a high sense of personal honesty; the un-tended news-stand and self-service shops amaze them (largely true, but they are not sure whether it carries over to statements by corporate bodies and government). (7) We are semi-barbarous in our racial discrimination, as confirmed by such well-publicized incidents as "Little Rock" (here they don't know the history and the situation, and miss a great deal).

To summarize generally held views of American "high culture"—the arts and education—is at least equally difficult, if not more so. In general, however, much progress has been made, especially among societies whose cultural backgrounds are similar (including most of Europe, and strangely Japan, because the Japanese have adopted Western civilization so extensively). A major reason for the progress in projecting the American image stems from the very considerable progress in the cultivation of the arts in America itself. Most young people today know much more about music, art, literature, and the like, than their parents. Our many universities and professional schools are turning out large numbers of skilled, able, and energetic persons. Our secondary schools are feeding the higher institutions, despite the bleatings from above, with great quantities of alert, responsive, and amazingly responsible youngsters. Taking a pragmatic view, the more one sees of educational systems abroad, by and large, the more one must have high regard for the American system, which is so integrally a part of American society. With regard to most cultural media, our interpretative and creative artists compete with any in the world. We need no longer take a back seat. The artistic flow is reversed, just as in higher education. We are in the midst of a cultural surge that, with avoidance of some traps, can become truly a Golden Age. All of this makes an impression abroad.

It is pertinent here to essay some generalities about the world beyond our shores: (1) Racial intolerance, with nationalistic, religious and linguistic overtones, exists in many countries other than the United States, but the reactions to problems in America varies in nature and intensity with the cultural backgrounds of the other countries. (2) Despite the

existence of societal and governmental conflicts, and of nationalistic pride in various forms, the popular desire for peace is real and urgent. (3) The drive for the improvement and extension of education is intense, as indicated in many ways. Herein lies the great hope, even in authoritarian countries. It matters little that much of the drive stems from the desire, almost the demand, to gain a greater share of the economic fruits of this world. Many countries, especially the less developed ones, look to the U.S. for considerable material assistance in this effort. It is unlikely, however, that much or rapid progress will result from simply making unilateral grants. Even the exchange of persons—educational specialists, teachers, graduate students, and the like—while perhaps politically expedient for the present, and hopeful in the long run, will not necessarily bring about progress as rapidly as desired on all sides. It is simply impossible to short-cut decades or centuries in the development of civilizations. Societies move only slowly, ever so slowly, as they learn to do things for themselves. But education is the only real basis for improvement, education of course as we understand it, which unshackles the mind, and is not tied to -ologies, -isms, or other purposes.

The task of projecting the American image, in the interests of fair dealing and relationships of trust, must take all these factors and conditions into account. We must counter-balance our assumptions and aspirations with those of other peoples. Here we find the rationale for the exchange of persons between the United States and other countries. There is no substitute for seeing at length, and experiencing in depth. With minor exceptions, we can have full confidence in our educational institutions and their representatives in carrying out this task. The community of scholarship is probably the strongest cord in the network of international understanding. In fact, it sometimes seems paradoxically that mathematicians, psychologists, and all the other specialists, each with their jargons, can be understood only by their professional kinfolk, be they American, Spanish, or Korean.

As Prime Minister Macmillan has put it, the winds of change are blowing. There are difficulties ahead. We will not always be understood, much less appreciated. The ways of the American society are fairly well set and, on the whole, they are fairly good ways. Only a society massive and complicated as is the American society, which is infused with vital internal forces, can move at all. Let us hope that American education will not become over-impressed with the art of getting along with people, and compromising, to the neglect of developing passionate convictions. We have need for both etiquette and creed. We can re-affirm our beliefs in American moral and academic standards, and especially in the American educational system. Not only will the image abroad become a more valid one, but the subject, of which the image at best can be only a pale representation, will become more hardy.

Summary of the presentation made by KENNETH A. ERICKSON

TO WORK in a foreign land is to live a new life! Hundreds of American school administrators are enjoying such an experience by working with service sponsored schools for American children throughout the world. Comments in this summary, however, are limited to schools operated by the US Army in Germany, France, Italy, and Ethiopia.

More than forty Army-sponsored junior and senior high schools are operating in Europe and Africa today. They furnish the children of military and civilian personnel stationed overseas educational opportunities comparable to those of better schools in the United States. All high schools are fully accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

It is true universally that the quality and effectiveness of educational programs vary directly with the ability of the local school administration. Therefore, it is essential each year that capable and successful state-side principals apply for available overseas administrative positions where one needs to be more than a school administrator. Principals in Europe must also be educational ambassadors responsible for schools by which all American secondary education is judged. Such responsibilities demand nothing less than our finest, most capable, and adaptable school leaders!

Enrollments in these secondary schools vary from 150 to 1,400 with students often coming from all fifty states. Recent plans for reducing the number of families overseas will only partially offset normal enrollment growth in the next few years. Many high-school buildings have been constructed recently while other schools are located in remodeled buildings. Classrooms in all cases are well lighted, well heated, and well equipped. Adequate textbooks, teaching materials, and instructional guides are available for teachers. Larger secondary schools have one or two assistant principals, and all schools have counseling assistance related to the school's total enrollment. An Army "School Officer" is assigned each school to assist with logistical or supply matters. Details of cafeteria and school bus operations are essentially handled by military personnel.

This is not to imply that little work remains for the school principal. More work than time is the rule for all secondary-school principals. Yet time also is available on week-ends or evenings to find opportunities to meet, understand, and accept as friends people known previously only as foreigners. Travel opportunities are plentiful in Europe and involve challenges for Americans to improve international understandings on that all important person-to-person level.

Basic salaries for administrators on the surface may not compete with those in the states, but take-home pay may be greater. School employees

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either are given comfortable housing in government quarters, or they receive an extra financial allowance to permit the rental of adequate quarters in the local community. Other privileges include the right to use army commissaries and post exchanges as well as the use of army hotels at resort centers. Transportation to and from the overseas assignment also is furnished by the government.

While some patience is required with the formalities which precede appointment and accompany overseas processing, the experiences and opportunities which accompany educational administration abroad cannot be equaled. Further information is available from the Department of Army, DCSPER, International Division, Old Post Office Building, Washington 25, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by KENNETH E. FULP

MY TWO-MONTHS study of the school systems of Finland and France revealed three disturbing points of view, toward the American system, held by Europeans. The needs of our educational ventures overseas will be analyzed on the basis of these points of view.

First, Europeans do not understand American journalism and other so-called educational critics. They tend to accept as gospel the printed word and assume that, if a criticism is printed, it is sanctioned by the proper authorities. They do not always know that, in this country, critics of our public school systems are not always experts on the subject.

Second, there is a general impression overseas that the quality of education in America is inferior to that of Europe. These impressions are formed by what they read and by their contacts with Americans overseas. It is a fact that the reading material available to the European does not give a true picture of our system. It is also a fact that the majority of the military personnel in a peace time army does not represent fairly the product of our public schools. Our civilian representatives in an effort not to treat their hosts as poor relatives have undersold our system.

Third, there is abroad a general ignorance of the true relationship that exists between our people and our schools. European governments are national governments with educational control in the national capital. Ours is a federation of states, with each maintaining its own school system. Thus, each school division is sensitive to the ideals and aspirations of the people it serves. Unless a European understands this difference, he gets the impression that our school system is poorly coordinated, shallow, and dictated to by the whims of everybody.

We make two major mistakes in preparing teams of specialist to visit foreign countries. First, we do not require that they speak the language

Kenneth E. Fulp is Principal of Pulaski High School, Pulaski, Virginia.

of the country involved. Without this knowledge, one can neither give the proper interpretation of our country nor gain an accurate understanding of the people visited. Second, we are so careful not to coach our visiting teams for fear of violating someone's freedom of thought and expression. The visiting American must understand, for example, that he must get beyond the official "winning and dining" for an accurate picture of a foreign school system. He must understand, for example, that visiting a classroom in France is not the informal routine that it is in this country. Each Frenchman has a pride that will not permit him to show you anything but the best until he knows you as a personal friend.

Americans, including educators, seem to have great difficulty in meeting foreigners as professional and cultural equals. We view ourselves as friendly and considerate people. But it is difficult for the foreigner to see that when we judge them according to our standards, when we fail to give proper respect to their local customs, and when we tend to use money as the yardstick for values. We do not do this at home. In summary, in our future educational ventures overseas, let us:

1. Extend our excellent public relations programs beyond the boundaries of this country. Permit others to read the good as well as the bad about our schools.

2. Send only those people on study trips who know the language, history, and culture of the people being visited.

3. Make sure that the visitors from this country representing education have a firm grasp of the principles underlying our system.

4. Encourage Americans going abroad to live with the people, eat their food, respect their customs, and speak their language.

5. Go to foreign countries in smaller groups, cover smaller geographical areas, and attempt to learn in depth.

In the United States as well as every other country, the educational system is an outgrowth of the history and culture of the people. Cognizance of this fact would make our educational ventures overseas more satisfying, easier to plan, and more productive.

WHAT ROLE FOR THE PRINCIPAL IN EMPHASIZING MORAL AND ETHICAL VALUES AMONG STUDENTS?

CHAIRMAN: *William Stanford*, Principal, High School, Hereford, Texas

INTERROGATORS:

Marshall Jenkins, Principal, Lyman Memorial High School, Lebanon, Connecticut

E. J. Landers, Principal, Pine Street High School, Conway, Arkansas

Kenneth E. Michael, Principal, Mount Pleasant Senior High School, Wilmington, Delaware

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. C. W. DETJEN

IN THE role for the principal in emphasizing moral and ethical values, the laity has as great a part to play as does the principal. Principals need the support and cooperation of students, parents, teaching staff, and community.

Although the high school is the "Birthplace of American Leaders," as maintained in a talk at our 1959 convention in Philadelphia, it is also the place where *followers* in our society receive their final formal education, their final direct guidance. If these students do not have sound moral and ethical values, leaders can accomplish little that is good. The high-school principal has a very important role to play in "firming up" the sense of moral and ethical values that has been growing within youth since birth.

The principal must play a role not only with his students, but also with his staff, the parents, and the community. Among important moral and ethical values that can be emphasized by the principal are these four: respect for authority, respect for the rights of others, pleasure in work, and respect for intellectualism.

Every student must learn, both at home and at school, that there are rules and regulations by which everyone must abide and that these do not mean loss of freedom but added freedom because he thus lives in a *lawful* society, not a *lawless* one. It is up to the principal, as the final authority in the high school, to build within the community, his staff, and his students respect for authority. At the same time, he must build a school atmosphere that produces respect for the rights of others and demonstrate this respect in his personal contacts with community, staff, and students.

By working closely with his board of education to choose wisely those who will teach in his school, the principal can lead the way toward a belief in the value of work and pleasure in it. Truly great teachers have

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even a more direct bearing than the home on instilling a respect for this value.

Cooperation in emphasizing respect for intellectualism is imperative. Although the principal may have an uphill struggle to make scholastic achievement the highest honor, in a community that over-emphasizes athletics, for instance, it can be done.

In putting the final emphasis on moral and ethical values with his students, the principal needs the wisdom of Solomon *and* the cooperation of his staff and his community. A good PTA can play an invaluable supporting role to that of the principal's. It provides him with the opportunity to interpret to his community those things which he is trying to do for the high-school youth and to enlist parents' support in achieving his goals.

Summary of the presentation made by STANLEY ABRAMS

THE past two decades have witnessed a number of movements aimed at counteracting the charges of secularism, materialism, and ethical neutrality to which the public secondary school has often been subjected. Several groups, primarily religious in their orientation, have been joined by such respected educational bodies as the Committee on Religion and Education of the American Council on Education and the Educational Policies Commission in urging that religious literacy, understanding of the tenets and practices of various organized religious faiths, be made an important objective of the common school program. It has been advanced that not only the major religious groups of our own people be studied, but those of other lands and peoples as well. Among the reasons for the above proposals are these:

1. Such learning would serve to improve intergroup relations among followers of many faiths by increasing understanding of differing creeds and rituals.
2. Sound moral and spiritual values of secondary-school youth would be enhanced, although admittedly not assured, by a clear understanding of the role of organized religious experiences in fulfilling a historic, as well as current, basic need of the human personality.
3. Since religious belief, and the ultimate personal commitment it requires, is such an important part of the world of the learner, its place in the curriculum would seem dictated by modern educational theory concerning the relevance of subject matter to actual life situations and experiences.

The many prepared courses of study, listings of suggested classroom procedures, and committee reports on this topic indicate that implementation might be achieved either by emphasis of materials incidental to other

Stanley Abrams is Supervising Principal of Center Moriches High School, Center Moriches, Long Island, New York. Enrollment (7-12), 450.

topical arrangements, or by the construction of complete units of study within the framework of specific courses, or even by the introduction of an additional subject fashioned from the requirements of the topic. Most authorities further indicate that the principle of church-state separation would not be impaired by such practices, provided that the purposes and methods of approach to the topic remained objective and factual rather than doctrinaire or apologetic in nature. The rights of non-religious (or even anti-religious) families would be no more violated by such study, it is contended, than those of Republican Party adherents would be by the study of the New Deal.

The public secondary school, with its religiously heterogeneous population, has been viewed as affording the best opportunity for an effective and widespread program of study of the various religious faiths of mankind.

However, it is in the implementation of the many specific proposals in this area that a great deal of difficulty has been encountered. The following list merely illustrates some of the roadblocks which have prevented classroom progress from keeping up with policy statements:

1. Parents and students have objected to presentation of materials or full discussion of topics which might be contrary to teaching of their own religious persuasions.

2. Community religious groups, sometimes contrary to pronouncements from hierarchical bodies, have raised objections to the manner in which their own or other faiths have been presented. Some of these groups have sought the right of selection of the materials to be used.

3. Teachers, with their own personal religious commitments and feelings of inadequacy in dealing with such a subject to the satisfaction of all concerned, have been reluctant to proceed vigorously in this area.

4. Despite intentions to the contrary, indoctrinational practices and materials have found their way into public school programs and, in some instances, have been used as the backbone of the curricular offering.

5. Doubts have arisen as to whether a topic of such a personal nature, as religious beliefs and practices, can ever be objectively studied and evaluated in the public secondary school and, even if such were the case, whether this attempt at objectivity might not dilute much of the vigor and challenge the material might be thought to hold.

6. It has been advanced that the level of maturity of secondary-school youth may be such as to reap a harvest of confusion and divisiveness as the result of sowing a few seeds of superficial facts and opinions about the religious beliefs and practices of others.

7. There is a large body of opinion that would deny the function of the public secondary school in this area in any manner except as it might incidentally impinge upon the pursuit of legitimate aims of instruction. This job has been viewed as belonging to other agencies of the community.

Summary of the presentation made by DELMER H. BATTRICK

Paper read by Elmer C. Betz, Principal, Technical High School, Des Moines, Iowa.

MORAL and ethical values are considered of prime importance in our Des Moines secondary schools. In stressing these values, both in our curriculum and in our extracurricular activities, we strive to have these values affect the total school environment both in the home and in the community. The principal's role in fostering the learning of these values functions in two meager areas: his own direct efforts to bring about a high moral and ethical tone in his school and in his leadership of his faculty as they strive to do the same.

The direct efforts of the principal begin with the person himself. Are his own moral and ethical values of the highest order? Are these values reflected in the way he meets and works with his faculty, his students, and their parents? Does he face all problems with honesty and fairness? Is he consistent and impartial? Does he command a deep and sincere respect from his faculty and from his student leaders? To the degree that these questions can be answered in the affirmative, the moral and ethical tone of the school will be good. The principal must face this responsibility directly and openly by frequent discussions with the faculty as how best to attain these values in the program and by observing the actions of students in their classes, in their student council, and in their athletic activities, then doing something about it when these actions tend to tear down the moral and ethical values he is constantly striving to achieve. The principal, therefore, becomes directly concerned with how discipline is handled in his school and who handles the severe cases, how parents are treated when they bring their problems, how the counselors meet problems involving values, and how individual teachers seize opportunities to teach values directly through their subject areas.

Following are some of the ways our Des Moines secondary-school principals have effectively led their teachers to emphasize the teaching of moral and ethical values:

1. At faculty meetings the ten generally accepted human values listed in the Educational Policies Commission's handbook, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (NEA-1951) were discussed and ways of teaching them applied, both to the curriculum and to the extracurricular activities of the school. Anecdotal records were kept by the teachers of these learning situations.

2. The teachers further met by departments with the principal, to exchange ideas and procedures for bringing about these learnings. One example discussed came from an eighth-grade oral english class. The teacher had presented them with this problem on moral values:

Delmer H. Battrick is Principal of the Roosevelt Junior-Senior High School, Des Moines, Iowa, and Secretary-Treasurer of the Iowa Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Two boys were seen talking and joking during the singing of the national anthem at the beginning of an assembly program. They were brought to the office by the teacher, and the principal gave each boy five days detention. They tried to defend their actions by saying they were not good singers—*Discussion Questions*: (1) What do you think of their actions? (2) How serious is an offense of this kind? (3) Do you think the punishment was fair? (4) What other punishment would you suggest? (5) What should be done to develop more respect for the national anthem?

3. In meeting with teacher-counselors, the principal discovered many value examples as these counselors worked with students in their individual problems. Moral and ethical values played an important part in helping them make decisions.

4. The school newspaper also provided an excellent medium for the expression of moral and ethical values by the students themselves, particularly on the editorial page. Space will permit only the headings of a few of the editorials in recent issues of the *Round-up* school paper of Roosevelt High School; "Student court criticized as lacking seriousness"; "Majority has its rights"; "No time for gratitude?"; "Thanksgiving meaning lost"; "Has saluting the flag become meaningless?"; "Case against litter-bugs"; "Civil rights question is vital controversy."

5. In all student council activities, in the club programs, and in both the intramural and interscholastic activities, the principal has worked closely with the student leaders and with the faculty sponsors of these activities as values are stressed. *Examples*: human relations committee activities, game conduct discussions and action, polio and T.B. drives, etc.

6. How students behave at athletic events, on the streets to and from school, and at shopping areas in the evenings reflects the tone of the school in the community. It is the principal's responsibility to stimulate the student body to take pride in the school and its accomplishments, and to strive to avoid all unfavorable publicity. The principal strives to maintain a close working relationship with the daily press so that news releases are favorable. In his many public appearances at civic clubs, PTA gatherings, etc., he is alert to public opinion about his school and seeks to correct faults, as well as inform the public about his program. His Parent-Teacher Association can be his greatest ally here.

WHAT KIND OF POLICY FOR THE PROMOTION AND NON-PROMOTION OF STUDENTS?

CHAIRMAN: W. E. Pate, Principal, Bolton High School, Alexandria, Louisiana

INTERROGATORS:

Richard J. Bradley, Principal, High School, Berlin, New Hampshire

John T. Sasser, Principal, Senior High School, Fayetteville, North Carolina

Charles Veit, Principal, Junior High School, Queens Village, New York

Summary of the presentation made by STANLEY E. DIMOND

RESEARCH on promotions and failures in secondary schools is quite meager. Most studies have dealt with failures in elementary schools. But the impact of these studies on promotion policies has had important effects on the secondary schools. In one high school, for example, over a thirty-year period, the median IQ of the high-school graduating class decreased from 129 to 117. At the same time, the median IQ in the elementary schools was increased from 94 to 111. The major cause of these shifts was the change in promotion policies in the school system.

In the decade from 1944 to 1954, the U.S. Office of Education reports that the percentage loss in the first grade decreased from 21 per cent to 12 per cent. Similarly, the enrollment loss at the tenth grade dropped from 19 per cent to 11 per cent. It appears that, while there is less retardation and failure than in earlier periods, failure is still an important feature of American schools.

Three general policies on failure seem to be operating in our schools:

1. *A Fixed Standard.* Under this system, students must achieve a pre-determined level of competence before they can be passed. The effects of the fixed standard policy are clear: Failure is the fate of the many. A few students are taught that they are superior; most are taught that they are inferior. The drop-out rate from high school is increased. The financial cost of supplying teachers for the repeaters is high.

2. *Continuous Promotion.* By this system, students are promoted on the basis of chronological age. They move regularly through the grades and are graduated from high school with their peers at ages 17 to 18. Although, in practice, continuous promotion seems rarely to be as automatic as implied, the policy is based on a recognition of the facts of individual differences plus numerous studies showing that, by and large, students learn more if they advance with their age mates.

Stanley E. Dimond is Professor of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

3. *Guidance Promotion.* By this policy, students are promoted on the basis of careful study and analysis of what seems best for each individual. The system is a refinement growing from continuous promotion plans. It assumes that teachers and administrators are professionally competent to make wise judgments about each individual. Guidance promotion is an outgrowth of studies which have shown that most students are better off when they are passed, but a few students seem to learn more if they are failed. For example, in one city, one hundred failures repeated subjects in high school. Forty did worse the second time; forty did about the same. But twenty learned more the second time. Guidance promotion endeavors to locate this minority which might profit by failure.

American high schools are committed to individualized education for all youth. These students are deserving of an education that is not humiliating or a breeder of inferiority. To accomplish this goal, promotion policies should be individualized and not based on arbitrary standards either of the fixed standard type or the continuous promotion type. Most students should pass through our schools with a steady progression, but there should be exceptions based on wise professional diagnosis.

Summary of the presentation made by JACKSON M. DRAKE

OVER 95 per cent of the secondary schools in southern Illinois compel students who have failed a subject required for graduation to repeat the subject in which they have failed. In determining whether or not credit is given after the completion of two semesters of work in a subject, the first- and second-semester grades are averaged. Ordinarily if a subject is failed the first semester and passed the second semester, the first semester's work is repeated the following year, regardless of the grade made the second semester, and *vice-versa*. In mathematics, science, and foreign languages courses, if a student fails the first semester but passes the second semester with a high enough grade so that the average of the two is passing, he is passed for the year. If he passes the first semester and fails the second, however, he repeats the second semester's work the following year.

It is rather obvious that secondary schools are in need of continued study and research in this area. The problem of eliminating failure in the secondary schools may be attacked in several ways. The great majority of secondary schools in southern Illinois are using diagnostic tests, and remedial instruction is being employed in cases of difficulty. An adequate guidance system is one which functions so that pupils who have difficulties receive counseling and guidance from sympathetic teachers who are willing to make changes in the program when changes are advisable.

Jackson M. Drake is Superintendent of Carbondale Community High Schools, Carbondale, Illinois. Enrollment, 850.

Southern Illinois secondary schools are attempting to "beef up" their guidance programs. Many area schools are attempting to set up an individualized program of instruction for its students.

Faculty study of the problem of non-promotion is a much more rational method of solving the problem than is administrative order. Unless the teachers who have been using failure as a part of their teaching technique are brought to a realization of the problem and, as a result of discussion and study, are prepared for a transition, there will be little improvement in educational result. For this reason, a large number of the area schools have faculty committees studying and working on this problem.

A number of area schools are experimenting with differentiated curriculums and methods suited to students of various ability levels. For example, there are courses in practical physics and in general physics, in everyday chemistry and in general chemistry, and in corresponding types of courses in history, literature, and mathematics.

Very few schools in the southern Illinois area have programs that classify students according to clearly defined and labeled programs or tracks such as, "college preparatory," "vocational," or "commercial." An attempt is being made to design an individualized program for each student so that the students themselves do not feel that they are labeled according to the program they may have chosen in the ninth or tenth grade. Flexibility is combined with opportunity for teachers, students, parents, and guidance counselors to work out a plan of subjects that will fit the abilities, interests, and the needs of each student.

No one has the magic formula or panacea for the solution of this problem of promotion or non-promotion. Most of the area schools do not hesitate to fail students who do not meet the minimum level of performance they judge necessary for mastery of *elective* subjects. In the area of required courses, the general standard applied seems to be that a student may be given a passing grade if he has worked to full capacity whether or not a certain level of achievement has been reached.

Summary of the presentation made by WALTER G. ZAHN

IN preparing for this presentation a survey was made of the promotional practices prevalent in the geographical area assigned—the junior high schools in East Central Wisconsin. Examination of responses and literature and research in the field of promotion and non-promotion brought an early conclusion that promotional practices are quite similar regardless of geographic areas. There was a time when the responsibility of schools was considered to be solely that of academic achievement. Equalization

Walter G. Zahn is Principal of Franklin Junior High School, Green Bay, Wisconsin. Enrollment, 1,293.

of educational opportunity and an increased emphasis on the child and his needs instead of total emphasis on subject matter has caused a shift and gradual evolvement of promotional policies which reflect this change in emphasis. Such policies are referred to by a variety of names each descriptive of some particular, unique feature: rigid grade standard promotion, ungraded units, continuous promotion, and guidance promotion.

An examination of survey results leads one to the conclusion that in our geographic area practices can be best identified as belonging to the category of guidance promotion. The program of guidance promotion considers whether retention or promotion would favor the child's growth and development. The problems and characteristics of the individual are the determining factors as the decision is finally made.

The following items summarize current practice in East Central Wisconsin: (1) Most of the schools surveyed reported that any form of retention in grades seven and eight was relatively rare. (2) Of those schools reporting some retention of students in grades 7-8, students who were expected to repeat the whole grade were those who failed in several major, required subjects. The decision was arrived at after conference and a consideration of all pertinent, related factors. (3) Several schools reported that promotion on a classified basis, for those students who would otherwise have been retained, resulted in the placement of these individuals in classes especially planned to remove the deficiency or strengthen the weakness without loss of grade classification. Some of these were designated as conditional placement and satisfactory performance was required of them in the grade to which they were advanced. (4) Some report that, in cases of non-promotion, summer school programs are provided to remove the deficiency and provide "make-up" opportunity.

Wisconsin schools in most communities of any sizeable population are organized on the 6-3-3 plan. Generally speaking, for purposes of transcript, the ninth-grade record is included as part of the senior high-school record and some units of high-school credit required for graduation are earned at the ninth-grade level; this procedure has a direct bearing on promotion policy in the ninth grade as such policies must be coordinated with that of the senior high school. Some practices peculiar to the ninth grade are therefore reported. (1) In general guidance promotion procedures are used. (2) Students who fail in several subjects spend one half day at junior high school and one half day in senior high school. Whether it is feasible to arrange for such a program or not is frequently determined by the proximity of the senior high school. (3) Single subject "failures" are sometimes repeated in the junior high school with the rest of the program of studies being taken in the senior high school. (4) One school reports that deficiencies in English and social studies (which cannot be repeated at senior high school) are carried along to the senior year and a qualification test is given then to provide the unit of credit. Very few students report to take such a tests as their subsequent later failures have caused them to drop out of school. (5) None of the com-

munities surveyed has technical high schools, but frequently drop-outs at the ninth-grade level or beyond do choose to enroll in vocational schools for the program of vocational preparation offered there. (6) Placing students in advanced courses and grade level is not uncommon and such placement is noted on the cumulative record.

Many of the principals reporting indicated that a variety of attempts at some form of grouping or placement is tried in an effort to place individuals in instructional programs planned to meet his indicated, apparent needs, but most admit that even when this is accomplished individual differences persist and need to be considered by the classroom teacher in planning instruction, so that flexibility will result and "failure" a comparatively rare occurrence. If such consideration has been given to placing a student, then it most logically follows that instruction must also be planned to take into account these needs and attempt to supply them. Some of the following suggested practices were recommended: (1) provide for a wide variety of learning experiences and materials; (2) provide for sub-grouping and work with small group instructional techniques—teaching machines and specialized audio-visual aids should be considered; (3) provide for flexibility of standards, assignments, and responsibilities; (4) provide remedial instruction as required; (5) provide opportunities for the gifted through participation in system-wide activity concerned with the organization of such programs, or, if numbers are small, provide these opportunities within the class group; (6) join with others in efforts directed toward team teaching for large- and small-group instruction as indicated.

THE PROS AND CONS OF ACCELERATING ACADEMICALLY TALENTED STUDENTS

CHAIRMAN: *John J. Goldgruber*, Principal, Wisconsin High School, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin

INTERROGATORS:

Paul H. Farris, Principal, Pentucket Regional Junior-Senior High School, Westbury, Massachusetts

Clark Hendrix, Principal, Field Kindley Memorial High School, Coffeyville, Kansas

Wilbur H. Marshall, Director of Secondary Education, Broward County Schools, Fort Lauderdale, Florida

Summary of the presentation made by **BOB G. WOODS**

THE questions, "Do the advantages of accelerating academically talented students outweigh the disadvantages?" and "Will we have more or less acceleration in our schools of the future?" are of utmost importance to today's educational leaders. A survey of most any group of principals will show that they point out the disadvantages of acceleration about as readily as the advantages and *vice versa*. Furthermore, it seems that the majority of teachers and parents have ambiguous attitudes toward this administrative plan of meeting the needs of the more capable learners. Yet, in spite of the existence of these feelings, the weight of the research evidence indicates that the advantages of accelerating the academically talented outweigh the disadvantages. This being the case, why, then, are so many educators and parents opposed to acceleration?

One obtains many different answers to this question, but they all point in one direction. We need to find better ways of administering our programs for accelerating academically talented students. Among the administrative problems which are still partially unsolved are those concerned with identifying these students, obtaining competent teachers, adapting the marking system to students of all levels of ability, transferring credit, minimizing class consciousness among the student body, and, perhaps the greatest problem of all, knowing what and how to teach these groups.

While techniques of identifying these students have been improved considerably in recent years, there are few principals who claim to have an infallible system. Our instruments and techniques for appraising general mental ability are fairly satisfactory and those for measuring achievement are acceptable in most fields. The area of greatest need for improvement at the present time is that which deals with the appraisal

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of such personal qualities as attitudes, motivation, industriousness, creativity, and ability to do sustained critical thinking.

Not only is the problem of recruiting teachers who are capable of coping successfully with the academically talented classes an acute one, but keeping the teachers happy who are not assigned to these groups is sometimes difficult. The older, more-experienced teachers usually feel that their seniority gives them the right to teach the accelerated groups. Yet, our experience shows that the better-qualified teachers are often those recently graduated from colleges and universities which have given them excellent training in new developments in the sciences, modern mathematics, or the latest techniques of teaching languages.

The problems which principals encounter concerning marking can be illustrated by an actual case. Jack, a senior in the accelerated group, by the end of this school year will have completed advanced placement courses in mathematics, science, and foreign language. Bill is a senior also, not in the accelerated group, and has taken only the required courses in science and mathematics and two years of foreign language. According to the principal of this school, Bill has nearly a straight-A average and will be the valedictorian of his class. Yet, there is a general agreement among the faculty that Jack's record, when the accelerated program which he has pursued is considered, far surpasses Bill's, even though Jack will likely have a "B" or two more than Bill to show for his efforts.

The problem of transferring credit has arisen when students transfer from schools having an accelerated program to schools which do not. Consider, for example, the case of the student who takes first-year algebra at the eighth-grade level and later transfers to a school which requires algebra for graduation, but does not accept the course taken in the eighth grade.

These are only a few of the problems which principals encounter. None of them is insurmountable. Satisfactory solutions can be found for all; perhaps you have already solved them in your school. But problems such as these have caused the resistance to programs designed for accelerating the academically talented students. However, in spite of this resistance, it is my belief that such programs will grow in favor until they are generally accepted as being characteristic of the American secondary school.

Assuming this prediction is correct, what will our accelerated programs of the future be like? It is not unreasonable to expect that, in our better high schools of tomorrow, we will provide for the acceleration of gifted pupils of all types—not just the academically talented. The boy who is unusually adept in woodworking, the girl who excels in sewing, and the pupil with expertness in dramatics or debate will all be provided the opportunity to pursue their particular talents and interests to a level well beyond that attainable by the student of average aptitude.

If our country is to maintain its position of prominence in today's world, we must give scope to ability in our public schools. We cannot

afford to shackle our gifted youth to a curriculum geared for the average. We must face into the problems and find the solutions. This will not be easy, especially in the smaller schools. Basic to the solution of these problems and to establishment of effective acceleration programs are competent teachers with professional dedication and zeal, truly functional guidance programs, and, most important of all, imaginative principals.

Summary of the presentation made by WILLIAM H. BRISTOW

1. Generalizing is the most hazardous part of research. What is generalized is not always borne out by the research or evaluated collateral experience. In decision making the teacher, the supervisor, the citizen develops action. Facts don't always play a part in decision making. Decision making about the gifted seems especially difficult and fraught with pitfalls.

2. Education can be good or efficient—or both good and efficient. Goodness is a function of value. Efficiency is a degree to which objectives or goals are accomplished.

3. A further consideration is of productivity, a concept of great importance for gifted. Olsen says: "The research of the future on the problem of adjustment to individual differences and on theories of seeking, self-selection, and pacing should go into the question of the distinction between school achievement in the sense of units of information and skill as measured by tests and production in the sense of units of work turned out analogous to similar concepts in industry."

4. In dealing with the gifted, the principal concern of the past has been with extra-curriculars, set ups, administrative development, and special projects. Much less has been done about the intra-curriculum, selection, organization and teaching of experiences. If progress is to be made, the intra must not be lost sight of, and must be given much more attention. Substance must not be sacrificed for form.

5. The amount of acceleration in schools in the United States is considerable—early entrants, skipping, summer schools, and special courses. The crowding of colleges, advanced placement program, and other means tend to discourage acceleration. New York City high schools in 1958 had over 57 per cent of their twelfth-grade students *under age*. This condition exists widely throughout the country.

6. Precise assessments are needed as well as definitions in order to think productively about the gifted. One problem is whether or not to accelerate. Gowan emphasizes the plight of the gifted and the non-achievers (boys predominately) and estimates them to be as much as

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15 per cent of the school population. Havinghurst calls attention to class status as a factor. In New York City, Detroit, and elsewhere, efforts are made to raise the sights of gifted underachievers.

7. Some points which should be considered are these:

- (1) Acceleration *per se* is neither sound nor capricious; necessary nor gratuitous; as a single device, it is good for some, bad for others. Along with other measures, it can help; alone, it is no better than a "pile-it-on policy," or "increase the number of units" to secure quality. It is not a substitute for a sound placement program for promotion. When used it should be integrated with curriculum, personnel policies, and organizational procedures.
- (2) The three principal measures which seem to offer something for all of us with respect to identifying and dealing with the gifted are:
 - a. An *assessment program* for all pupils which will identify the gifted and talented along with all individuals and groups requiring attention.
 - b. A *guidance and periodic check-up* using informal and formal methods to determine growth.
 - c. *Curriculum reorganization for meaning and depth* through which top priority and effort should be placed on the selection, organization, and teaching of experiences. Acceleration plus *per se* are the least productive of all proposals at this time. A frame of reference which appears to have more importance for quality education is that of pupil placement in secondary schools and advanced placement in college.

American education can no longer postpone major attention to curriculum development. The halting, but exciting, efforts of the past—integration, general education, core, common learnings—need to be combined with present-day efforts in mathematics, science, and foreign language to give a balanced, rational, comprehensive, and unified approach.

Summary of the presentation made by GERALD F. HOPKINS

WE, AS a staff at Mountain Lakes, believe in a philosophy of education which provides for individual needs and differences. In group meetings, we examined our present practices to determine how well we are implementing our stated beliefs. It became obvious that some of our students were not being challenged sufficiently because the teacher had to be cautious of going too far, too fast, too deeply into subject matter. To accommodate individual differences perfectly, it would be necessary

Gerald F. Hopkins is Principal of Mountain Lakes High School, Mountain Lakes, New Jersey. Enrollment, 652.

for us to have a ratio of one teacher per student. This is, of course, impossible. The next best thing is some form of grouping.

An examination of textbook material, courses of study, interviews with experienced teachers indicated that there is considerable overlap in seventh- and eighth-grade arithmetic and in seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade science. We agreed that the students needing the greatest attention were the superior students who would be bored by the regular program. After further study, particularly a review of the psychology of learning of superior students, we developed a course of study designed for superior students and consistent with what we know about the way they learn.

PRACTICE

The program calls for seventh- and eighth-grade mathematics to be taught in one year, followed by Algebra 1; Geometry (Plane and Solid); Algebra 2; Senior Mathematics consisting of logarithms, plane trigonometry, advanced algebra, analytic geometry, and calculus; modern mathematics; and calculus. Actually, we are about to dissolve specific labels into Mathematics 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. We have analyzed the content of the science courses in grades 7, 8, and 9 and rewritten them so that we teach the science material in two years, not three. We then offer biology, chemistry, physics, and advanced sciences. If the course is to accomplish what we earnestly hope it will, then it is imperative that there be not only an increase in the amount of work covered, but also an increase in the level of achievement accepted and demanded of the student.

SELECTION

It is most important that we first identify the superior student. Our selection is based on a number of factors: (1) teacher recommendation; (2) student achievement; (3) test scores on standardized tests (includes IQ test); (4) interest in the program (Right now it is as much parent interest as student interest.); and (5) maturity. We place greatest emphasis on teacher recommendation.

EXPECTATIONS

Our aim is best described in the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development booklet *The High School We Need* by Kimball Wiles and Franklin Patterson:

1. The American high school, therefore, must provide youth with experiences which continuously increase the personal, social, and vocational competencies needed in our society.

2. One half to two thirds of each student's program should be used to develop his talents and to further his personal goals within the framework that the community is willing and able to support.

3. Students should be grouped in various ways in different phases of their high-school experience.

Our teachers and community expect all students will experience a wider variety of learning experiences and pursue knowledge with greater depth and understanding than is possible in regular sections. Less drill will be required and students will progress more at their own speed and less at class median. Students will not be bored with classwork. Teachers comment that they are able to be more themselves with a more mature group.

DISADVANTAGES

We recognize some disadvantages:

1. Social stigma attached to not being selected.
2. Possibility we may miss some deserving student.
3. Not every school has accelerated grouping; therefore, if you transfer, you have a problem.
4. Claim frequently made that the practice is undemocratic.

ASSESSMENT

A program of acceleration has been in operation in Mountain Lakes High School for three years. We are quite happy with its progress. The value of the program and its contribution to the over-all educational program is constantly being evaluated. We have made some changes in the mechanics but none in philosophy since its inception.

We firmly believe that we best serve education when we teach at the level the student can best learn. We perform a disservice to students and the community when we do not encourage superior students to achieve and explore at a rate consistent with their intellectual capacities. They have the right to be accelerated—we have a duty to accelerate them. We should not lock-step learning because of tradition or past practice.

HIGH-SCHOOL AFFILIATION PROGRAM— WHAT POTENTIAL FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING?

CHAIRMAN: *Fred L. Biester*, Superintendent, Glenbard High School, Glen Ellyn, Illinois

INTERROGATORS:

James W. Doon, Jr., Acting Chief, Teacher Exchange Section, Division of International Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Isamu Miyoshi, Principal, Kauai High School, Lihue, Kauai, Hawaii

Summary of the presentation made by **RICHARD C. WOOTON**

THE vital interests of our country today require that all Americans join in a common effort to bring about better mutual understanding and appreciation between ourselves and the other peoples of the world. Thousands of Americans are already devoting their time and energy to this cause through the People-to-People Program, but the task requires the efforts, not of thousands, but of millions of Americans.

The increasing evidence from many parts of the world that young people, particularly students, are easily being led into actions and attitudes unfriendly to America, has impelled the U.S. Information Agency to assign a full-time staff member to the task of promoting and encouraging the development of increased contacts between American high schools and secondary schools in the rest of the world.

This does not mean that the Federal government proposes in any way to interfere with high-school curriculum or extracurricular programs. We see our role as one of helping bring together interested schools here and abroad with the help of our Embassies abroad. We are also willing, when asked, to give advice and practical suggestions on the establishment and conduct of affiliations between American and foreign secondary schools.

The first question is usually; how to get started? One of the best ways is through an actual exchange of students or teachers with a foreign school. One well-established program for exchange of high-school students is that of the American Field Service. The Teacher Interchange Program, coordinated in this country by the U.S. Office of Education, offers opportunities for teacher exchanges with many foreign countries. Those wishing to begin with a school-to-school contact might well consult the School Affiliation Service of the American Friends Service Committee (Philadelphia), which has already assisted over 100 American schools in forming overseas affiliations. A most promising project for affiliation between Latin American and North American schools has been initiated by

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the People-to-People Program through the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. This is not a health or sports program as such, but it is actually of great potential use for motivating Spanish teaching programs. If contact with a specific country or area is desired, principals or teachers may also write to us in Washington.

We are well aware that many of you already have active programs of international relations in your schools. We felt, however, that it would be helpful and stimulating today to hear from three representative principals whose schools or school systems have had a rich experience either in school-to-school affiliation or some similar relationship with foreign school systems. O. Meredith Parry, William Penn Senior High School, York, Pennsylvania, will describe the role his school has played in a sister-city relationship between York and Arles, France; W. Eugene Stull of Abington Senior High School, Pennsylvania, will describe the affiliation between Abington and Berlin developed with the assistance of the American Friends Service Committee's School Affiliation Service; and C. Russell Henzie, Horace Mann Junior High School, San Diego, will describe features of a system-wide relationship between schools of San Diego and Yokohama, Japan.

Summary of the presentation made by O. MEREDITH PARRY

THE story of the twinning of York and Arles dramatically unfolds a combination of a dream, tenacity, imagination, originality and cooperation. It reveals how educators, school directors, army generals, a rabbi, manufacturers, merchants, professionals and workingmen, city officials, citizens, organizations and clubs, all joined in helping activate a project aimed to promote international understanding. It is needless to repeat the story here as it may be obtained in printed form from the York-Arles Twinning Committee in York. The twinning of York and Arles finds its roots in the introduction of French into the curriculum of the elementary schools of York during the tenure of Dr. Arthur W. Ferguson. However, the ideal behind this innovation merits special emphasis. Dr. Victoria Lyles had divined a step to better international understanding. In addition to its cultural value, she aimed to utilize the knowledge of the new language for an exchange of correspondence between the small children of York and Arlesians who were French speaking.

Today, under the administration of Dr. John C. Albohm, in 96 of its elementary and junior high-school classes (not including senior high school) 3,000 pupils study French under six special language teachers. These pupils present weekly television programs, using conversational

O. Meredith Parry is Principal of William Penn Senior High, York, Pennsylvania. Enrollment, 2,107.

French as a part of its Radio and Television Program. Occasionally, the pupils present French plays, coached by their teachers who manifest an awareness of the ideal aims of the twinning program.

The school administration issued a special course in the "Teaching of Elementary French," compiled by M. Jean Laurain, second exchange teacher from Arles. The newest addition to this program consists of language laboratories in all secondary schools.

Many adults paid heed to the call issued by General Jacob L. Devers, the liberator of Arles and a native son of York to: "get busy on your French and then visit Arles for a broadened viewpoint and understanding of the French nation." Over 2,000 adults have attended the adult French classes given at the William Penn High School.

The activities of the York-Arles Twinning Committee are not confined to the boundaries of the school district. They reach out to York city government, industry, library and arts, organizations and clubs, adults and youths, and, above all, to the hearts of people of all walks of life, thanks to the dedication and wholehearted cooperation of the local press, radio, and television.

The program became all-embracing by encouraging membership by all of the constituents of the above-named groups and through the medium of the following activities: official visitation of the top administrative officers of the two communities, informal visitation, student exchange on high-school and college levels, worker exchange, exchange of art exhibits, exchange of vacationers, observance of the other's independence days, and exchange of books, periodicals, and cultural material.

The story of the York-Arles twinning is being circulated in many parts of the world. Radio Diffusion Francaise sent its famous commentator, M. Pierre Crenesse, with a crew of photographers to York and filmed the twinning activities for later televising throughout France and its colonies.

If this inter-community friendship shows favorable results and continuous progress, even in the light of cold statistics, it is quite evident that there is a force determined to advance the aims and objectives of twinning which:

1. Is all-embracing, it incorporates every phase of contact and exchange on a people-to-people or grass-root level. Every activity gives birth to new ideas which are put into effect.
2. At least the York side of the twinning is locally supported. As yet no national foundation has offered or been asked for financial assistance.
3. Has no ulterior motives save that of helping to promote a better understanding of their respective people and their ways of life, reciprocal good will, and mutual respect. Nothing is being, or endeavored to be, gained commercially.

They merely pray fervently that their experiment will merit emulation and ultimately lead to the materialization of the greatest dream of humanity "that every man shall sit under his vine and under his fig tree and none shall ever make him afraid."

Summary of the presentation made by W. EUGENE STULL

ALTHOUGH there are many facets to the High School Affiliation Program, I shall confine my remarks to the practice of student exchange. The exchange program was begun in Abington High School in 1952. The entire project is carried on by our student Affiliation Committee under the sponsorship of an interested faculty member. During the first several years, students were exchanged with our affiliated school, the Lily Braun Schule in Berlin, on an alternating basis; *i.e.*, one year a student would come to Abington and the next year we would send someone to Berlin. This program developed so that in 1956 we had a two-way exchange. This practice has grown until last year we had three of our Abington students in Germany and entertained three German students in Abington.

I sincerely believe that such a program does foster international understanding. Not only does the student himself have this potential, but also everyone associated with the program becomes more interested in the affiliated school and, hence, the affiliated country.

I would say that the key to this program is the proper selection of the exchange students. Whether this person uses his potential for understanding becomes the difference between the wasting of a year or the reaching of the goal of the exchange program. In a very real way, therefore, the exchange student is an ambassador—either a good, mediocre, or a poor one. One of our exchange students has said that the individual student chosen to represent his school and community abroad may be compared to a stone thrown into a quiet pond. The ripples start at the center and continue to the shores, frequently beyond the sight of the initial disturbance. Upon his return to his home school, the exchange student must be expected to share his experience with his fellow students and to convey to them a mature interpretation of what he has seen, heard, and done.

Since our program in Abington Senior High School is supported by our Affiliation Committee, we feel that many students, by their interest and participation, learn to know much more about other peoples. The interest in our affiliation school has resulted in many personal friendships and correspondence. This results in a firm basis for mature understanding which cannot be achieved by any other way.

Perhaps the real goal of the Affiliation Program is not reached until the exchange student returns to his home school. When he returns, he has left part of himself behind, but he brings much of his life and experience with him which must be shared with his fellow students, organizations, and his home community. It is upon these reports reflecting his activities that the impressions of his peers are based. Therefore, the key word of this program must be "share." This shared knowledge can only

W. Eugene Stull is Principal of Abington Senior High School, Abington, Pennsylvania.

result in understanding. People who know and respect each other are far less likely to be enemies than those who do not.

Then too, we must not forget the potential for better understanding inherent in parent groups. At Abington we have an organization of parents interested in the Affiliation Program. This group sponsors activities to raise money to send our students abroad. Through meetings, correspondence, and interchange of information, this group feels it is an integral part of the program. These adult views add to the purposes and aims of this project.

It would seem, therefore, that the exchange project as a part of the Affiliation Program represents a beginning step in international understanding that can only result in far-reaching beneficial consequences.

Summary of the presentation made by C. RUSSELL HENZIE

SAN DIEGO City Schools has for some time been concerned in how it can contribute through its instructional program to better international relations and the promotion of world understanding in this ever shrinking globe. The many secondary schools of this community have been involved in a variety of individual programs over the past years. Some of these efforts have been individual friendship alliances with schools and classes in a variety of foreign countries and some have been parts of existing programs through Junior Red Cross, American Field Service, *etc.*

It is interesting to note that a local program under the auspices of the American Field Service, started in 1953 and brought one foreign student to this area. Today, this program has grown to include twenty-three foreign students attending school in San Diego and has sent ten students from this area to study in foreign countries. Many influential people of the community have been enlisted actively in the program. For the second year, a Board of Education member has a foreign student living in his home.

A unique international relations activity in San Diego is the establishing of a sister-city relationship between San Diego and Yokohama, Japan. The program started in 1954 with a proposed gift of a Japanese Stone Snow Lantern from the people of Yokohama to the people of San Diego. The actual presentation to San Diego was made in 1955. Following this original gesture by Yokohama, a suggestion was made by the United States Information Agency encouraging the City of San Diego to be the first city on the Pacific Coast to establish a permanent sister-city affiliation.

Various organizations of the community, representing education, community service, the arts, commerce, travel, labor relations, *etc.*, made up

C. Russell Henzie is Principal of the Horace Mann Junior High School, San Diego, California.

a community-wide committee. The purpose of this alliance was "To encourage and cultivate mutual understanding between the people of our cities through acquaintance of customs, modes of living, recreation, and cultural interest." On several occasions, representative groups from San Diego have visited Yokohama, taking gifts of art, samples of students' work, products of local industries, *etc.*; the Japanese have reciprocated similarly.

Students of Helix High School and the Minami High School in Yokohama, are exchanging letters, photographs, and descriptions of their school communities. Individual students in various grades have established "pen-pal" relationships. At the present time, selected art objects of the youngsters in the elementary grades of the San Diego City Schools are enroute to Yokohama by way of the United States Navy. In return, a similar cargo will be sent to San Diego to be displayed throughout the local schools and later to be exhibited for the entire community. This program has been an intensive undertaking by the Junior Chambers of Commerce of Yokohama and San Diego.

It is evident that the surface has only been scratched for uncovering the vital potential of direct relationships to strengthen and enhance further international understanding.

HOW ASSESS WHICH TECHNOLOGICAL INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS TO USE?

CHAIRMAN: *Paul W. Harnly*, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Secondary Education, Public Schools, Wichita, Kansas

INTERROGATORS:

R. R. Vance, Consultant, Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee

William A. Vincent, General Consultant in Instruction, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

Edwin L. Williams, Jr., ETV Coordinator, State Department of Education, Montgomery, Alabama

Summary of the presentation made by ANNA L. HYER

GOOD teachers from time immemorial have used multi-sensory avenues to learning. What the technological revolution in education has done is to increase abundantly the number, the variety, and the complexity of the teaching tools now available. It is said that there are now 40 distinctly different types of audio-visual materials. With such abun-

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dance, a multitude of ways to present sensory experiences to children is opened to the teacher. This abundance and variety of instructional materials indeed opens new opportunities to teachers, but it also greatly increases the professional choices and decisions they must make.

What are the key trends in the use of audio-visual materials that will play upon our schools? The fastest growing area in my opinion will be that of auto-instructional materials, devices, and techniques—sometimes referred to as self-teaching resources; for example, language laboratories and the materials and equipment used for listening and viewing centers in classrooms, libraries, or for home study and programmed materials for use in teaching machines and as scrambled texts.

It may seem contradictory to say that there will be a continuation of the trend toward large-group or mass instruction, but actually these trends are complementary. There will also be, during the 60's, a decided increase in television, in filmed courses, and in the utilization of equipment tailored for communication to large groups (such as the overhead projector to replace the chalkboard). There will be much interest in instructional systems—the planned integration of content, instructional resources, and methods of presentation. We have already witnessed the advent of teaching kits and the MIT instructional system for the new Physical Science course.

There will be a rapid expansion of local production of materials as more simplified and less expensive equipment comes on the market for 8mm sound films, for recording TV programs, making transparencies, and the like. In the 60's we will see a speeding up of the rate of acceptance of instructional technology. The adoption of technology speeds the acceptance of future technology—as witness, tape recorders, language laboratories, and TV, all of which have caught on much faster than the equipment which preceded them.

The increasing acceptance of instructional technology will give rise to the use of a wider range of instructional materials and equipment. This economy of abundance will cause teachers to face extremely difficult problems in selecting, obtaining, and using appropriate learning materials. These problems will in turn call for vigorous administrative leadership and more extensive in-service education opportunities.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN J. GACH

THE impact of the NDEA program upon the secondary schools of Wisconsin has been tremendous. This is particularly true in the area of audio-visual instructional aids as evidenced by the many splendid language laboratories, by the superb technological equipment in the science

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rooms, and by the many vital revisions in curricula and teaching methods in the modern foreign language, science, and mathematics classes. Moreover, these electronic marvels could not help but play an important part in the improvement of guidance programs throughout the high schools of our state.

The much appreciated Federal largesse did not mark the beginning of this widespread use of audio-visual equipment. One has only to cite the famous Wisconsin "School of the Air," now in its thirtieth year of providing valuable classroom radio programs, and the many contributions made by the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction at the University of Wisconsin. The latter agency not only has developed an excellent film library, but it has also been responsible for training thousands of teachers since 1946. However, while Wisconsin may well be proud of the audio-visual strides of the past two decades, it would be more helpful to present some specific developments. We cannot claim that all are unique or new; it is quite likely that many of you have enjoyed similar approaches in your own areas. Still, these should provide some ideas for many of you.

PROMISING AV PRACTICES IN SEVERAL WISCONSIN HIGH SCHOOLS

A. C. E. Hocking, the AV Director, and the teachers and administrators at Oconomowoc High School determined the foreign language, science, and mathematics AV needs of their schools for each year over a three-year period. The careful step-by-step plan was well received by the school board and was immediately approved by the State Department of Public Instruction. As a result, this is one school that will have avoided the troublesome headaches that are experienced annually in other districts.

B. Dr. Donald Scott, the AV Supervisor and Curriculum Coordinator at Neenah, directed a valuable "Pilot Film Review Workshop" in his community. This made it possible for the classroom teachers to select and preview the latest films in their respective subject areas. The teachers first heard a careful presentation as to the importance of effective utilization of educational films and then met in 20 small sections to preview a total of 174 teaching films.

C. A number of the high-school districts that are contemplating new physical plants or extensive changes in their present buildings employed specialists and classroom teachers to work with their architects in the planning of AV facilities that will be adaptable to the electronic developments of the future. The film, *The Visual Strip Audio-Visual Classroom*, was viewed by many school board members who gained much from this well-planned film.

SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS IN AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION

A. The Wisconsin Physics Film Evaluation Project provided the opportunity for representatives of the state university and state colleges to collaborate with classroom teachers in evaluating the effectiveness of the

Harvey White physics films that were televised to a number of Wisconsin high schools some time ago. The findings and conclusions afforded a comprehensive appraisal as to the strengths and weaknesses of these films that should serve us well if any similar presentations are planned for the near future.

B. The increased interest in AV courses of instruction offered by the University of Wisconsin and the state colleges was not totally unexpected since we have always been aware of the value of such offerings. While the NDEA does not provide equipment for these institutions, they have tried to keep pace with the more fortunate high schools. Opaque projectors, educational TV, and even a few of the "new fangled" teaching machines are now being utilized and examined in teacher training. It should be mentioned that these and other devices are not only being used in AV courses *per se*, but many "methods" courses are also making effective use of such equipment.

C. One of the most important developments revolves about the course, "Audio-Visual Education," that is now being televised to the schools of the Midwest and some southern states. While this program of 42 one-half hour broadcasts was primarily designed for elementary-school teachers, the content merits consideration by all high-school administrators and classroom teachers. Dr. Walter Wittich of the University of Wisconsin and a number of others have developed a functional program that deals with all phases of audio-visual instruction including the utilization of the oft forgotten chalkboards, models, and the like. For those who are not fortunate enough to live within viewing distance of this outstanding program, *The 1961 Revised Issue of the Study Guide*, used in conjunction with this course and available through the School of Education of the University of Wisconsin will furnish interesting and valuable reading for all school personnel.

THE FUTURE?

Many developments are literally "popping" all about us. This is undoubtedly true in other sections of our nation. Only one week ago, the Midwest Program in Airborne Television Instruction (MPATI) started a \$7½ million experiment in teaching a number of high-school courses to certain schools in six states from 23,000 feet aloft. We hope that ETV stations in major cities can be encouraged to pick up these telecasts for rebroadcasting to fringe areas. If this proves to be electronically successful and financially feasible, we may well realize that which was optimistically predicted in the recently published report of the President's Commission on National Goals, "By 1970 every school in the nation should be equipped for instruction by television; and the advantages and limitations of educational television should be universally understood."

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN CARR DUFF

NO INSTRUCTIONAL aid can be assigned a definite effectiveness index. The value of any teaching-learning aid depends on several factors. *First*, what value does it have in terms of the purposes of the teacher? *Next*, what value does it have in terms of the purposes of the learner? (These purposes usually overlap but are not identical.) *Finally*, how are the potentials of the device related to the philosophical values and large goals of the educational community? The medical profession requires clinical evidence before it endorses a new drug or a new surgical procedure. By the same token, in education we need evidence, scientifically derived, concerning the possibilities and limitations of new technological devices. We need especially information objectively derived from the experience of competent teachers and supervisors rather than from the optimistic claims of manufacturers and vendors. Concerning the technical qualities and limitations of apparatus we plan to test for its educational values, we need laboratory reports from research engineers. A projector that overheats, that has a lens that distorts the picture, and that is not designed for simplicity of operation and durability is not one to use in a test of the educational value of projectors.

Pre-service education for teaching must include some firsthand experience in the use of technological aids. However, it is even more important that education courses present clearly the principles of teaching and the theories of learning and co-ordinate these with a consideration of ultimate goals in public-school education. The inculcation of principles of ethical behavior is still an important goal in the schools. Copying maxims was never wholly effective in learning ethical behavior, and, with all the machines we might employ as technological aids, the student must still have practice in the give-and-take of living with others if he is to get the habit of making ethical decisions and doing the right thing. The use of teaching devices requires not only skill but infinite wisdom; the more machines we have, the more expert teachers we shall need to control the machines, for the right machine used at the wrong time, or in the wrong way, or for the wrong purpose can do great damage in the teaching-learning process.

It is not possible to determine the cost of a machine by adding the net cost of the machine, plus delivery and installation, plus operation, plus maintenance and repairs. Only a cost accounting procedure that takes into account the "production" of the machine is valid in determining its cost. If it can be established that a technological device saves teaching effort and increases speed and comprehension in learning, then the machine will pay for itself and its cost is inconsiderable. However, impulse buying (*cf. The Hidden Persuaders* by Vance Packard) accounts

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for the purchase of much of the educational machinery bought for schools. We need to develop more critical buymanship. However, we may allow ourselves the luxury of an occasional error of judgment, for if the nation goes bankrupt, it will not be because billions of dollars were rashly spent in buying school equipment to give us an even chance in the race with catastrophe.

The bogey of obsolescence restrains some school officials from buying technological instruments. There would be no obsolescence if there were no progress in developing new devices, and most of us want to be on the side of progress. We dislike to drive an automobile that is out of date and lacks the new improvements. In industry the cost of machinery is written off in five to ten years, but schools have never been allowed a definite write-off period, though some equipment becomes obsolete before it wears out. If it is reasonably certain that a machine for use in a classroom or shop or laboratory will pay for itself in educational advantages, it would be false economy to put off buying it because a better machine may be on the market five years hence. In education no less than in industry or in the military services, we shall have to pay something for progress.

WHAT CRUCIAL PROBLEMS CONFRONT THE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL?

CHAIRMAN: *Hanford F. Rants*, Principal, West Junior High School, Downey, California

INTERROGATORS:

George W. R. Kirkpatrick, Principal, Junior High School, Bala-Cynwyd, Pennsylvania

Frank L. Williams, Principal, Southwest Junior High School, Hot Springs, Arkansas

Summary of the presentation made by ALFRED H. SKOGSBERG

CRUCIAL problems come from five areas. Their solutions require new insights, new concepts, and original operational procedures.

Guidance. Many devices, such as core classes, home-room center, scheduled "guidance classes," deans of girls and of boys, are attempts to overcome the lack of trained personnel in fulfilling the guidance responsibility of the junior high school. All now know trained counselors

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in the ratio of about 250 pupils to one full-time counselor is essential. This means the junior high-school principal must have answers to questions like these: What is an adequate guidance program for a particular school? Are the points of decision in the choice process so located that they will be made by those most competent to make the necessary decisions? What kinds of persons do we need as trained counselors? What internal guidance organization should we have? These questions are not answered in the same way that the senior high school might do, even in the same community, because its operational functions differ.

Program Content. The explosion of knowledge makes content selection a vital problem. Content must be chosen in terms of pupils, particularly the non-academic and the most able. Provisions for pupils to work alone are necessary. Sequence, depth, scope differ for the several kinds of groups. Purposes determine the criteria of selection.

Improving instruction for these extreme groups requires new ideas about time allotments. The outmoded Carnegie Unit must go. Part of a year, part of a week, varying times per day according to the planned gamut of experience indicate profitable exploration.

Library Program. Library usage in junior high schools differs considerably from the common image of adult use. The library is a service agency for the slowest, the non-academic, and the potentially college bound. All pupils must have library instruction, regularly scheduled, of frequent occurrence throughout the secondary school. Read *Standards for School Libraries* (American Library Association, 1960).

Organization for Learning. If the junior high school is to progress, critical analysis of school structure by what we can learn from organizational research is really crucial. Flexibility, adaptability, and operational efficiency must become inherent in structure. Operation should show functional relevancy to purpose.

Curriculum furnishes the means to achieve goals stemming from purposes. Grade levels, as such, will tend to disappear. Pupils can be grouped on the basis of learning readiness regardless of chronological age. Unified studies, core, separate subjects, cycle core all are useful curricular devices, but any one is not equally applicable to all pupils.

Students or organization know that defensible secondary-school organization must have purpose as the dominant base rather than process as traditionally organized.

In-Service Training of Teachers. What to do? In what sequence? What methods can we use? These questions, and others, demand answers from principals. If we are going to overcome training lacks and move toward quality education, we face intensive on-the-job training.

We must not fall into the trap of seeking training only for junior high school. Our future is tied to teachers trained in the whole sweep of secondary education with graduate specialization in its early or later phases.

Methodology and techniques for our wide range of pupil abilities, situational dynamics, social class mores and their effects on pupils, test interpretation, reading in the content fields, multi-dimensional pupil selection are some topics a good in-service program will treat.

We, as professional educators, in finding solutions to crucial problems, must be willing and able to challenge the traditional.

Summary of the presentation made by G. DERWOOD BAKER

AFTER two decades of professional neglect, it seems that the junior high school is going to be one of the focal points for educational experimentation and development. At long last, research specialists and thoughtful citizens are recognizing that the early adolescent years are crucial in the formation of intellectual interest, scholastic skills, social values, and—most important of all—the young person's view of and attitude toward himself.

As one who has worked in the junior high-school field for thirty-five years, I welcome this new interest, but I must add that I am less than enthusiastic about some of the so called "new" programs—many of which are duplicating errors made and abandoned in the 1920's and 30's. I have time here to mention only two.

1. *Ability grouping.* I share the national concern for discovering and developing the talent of gifted children and for giving special assistance to pupils suffering from educational handicaps of whatever origin, but the assumption that all these differences in ability and need can be resolved by sectioning pupils of similar intelligence quotients together has been tested and found wanting. Good educational planning calls for the placing of pupils in groups where they can develop maximally, but, when programming in general education creates sections of culturally and intellectually deprived pupils, it violates our concepts of democracy and years of tested practices. This program was tried extensively twenty years ago and abandoned.

Early adolescence should be a period for exploration and discovery. Average pupils, slow learners, and the "late bloomers" need the stimulus that comes from classroom contact with bright, intellectually venturesome classmates. This is especially true in literature and the language arts, social studies, and science where common integrating social experiences are essential. Differentiation, grouping by special interest and on the basis of achievement, has its place, but not in grades seven and eight. It should come after the school has done its best to stimulate and release

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interests. Differentiation should be made, not on the basis of intelligence scores, but on the basis of revealed interests and classroom achievement. After an initial year of a modern language, or when pupils are guided into the elective courses in mathematics, science, social studies, or the fine and practical arts—then intelligent differentiation is possible.

We profess to value the dignity and worth of each personality, but we do violence to this principle when, by our administrative arrangements, we say to eleven-and twelve-year olds, "We have tested you and found you lacking in intelligence," or "You are only average," or "You are bright and potentially talented." We can grade eggs without affecting their quality, but children are dynamic, perceptive, and responsive. They respond to our estimate of them. It is necessary to make adjustments for individual differences, but experience and research have amply demonstrated that ability grouping and sectioning by intelligence is not the way.

2. *Departmentalization.* One of the advantages of the junior high school is that it makes it possible to enrich the experiences of youth through exposure to new fields of knowledge and to teachers of advanced training in these fields. However, the junior high school is also supposed to bridge the gap between the self-contained classroom of the elementary school and the fully departmentalized program of the senior high school. This would seem to imply that the seventh grade should contain some of the characteristics of the elementary school and that the ninth grade should approximate the high school in departmentalism and its demands for independent study. Now, it seems, the space age is in such urgent need of specialists that specialization must be initiated in the seventh grade, if not earlier. Gone, in many schools, are the core or block of time courses, the home-room periods, and home-room groups which traveled as a unit throughout the school day. Fast disappearing are all the studies of articulation and correlation. Each pupil has his own schedule and meets with a different group and a new teacher each period of the day. And, as high-school mathematics, language, and science courses are pressed down upon the junior high school, many of the exploratory experiences in art, music, business education, and the practical arts as well as student activities, clubs, and recreation are being crowded out. The critical issue here is, are we going to perfect and improve the junior high school, as Dr. Conant among others has suggested, or are we going to substitute for it a European (or a Russian) secondary-school model?

Summary of the presentation made by HAROLD OYER

A CONSIDERATION of competencies required of a junior high-school principal necessitates a clear understanding of his primary role. To describe this role as simply as possible, I would paraphrase the title of a recent ASCD bulletin describing the role of the teacher as "Freeing the Capacity To Learn" by stating that the role of the principal is "freeing the capacity to teach." Even as freeing the capacity to learn does not imply a *laissez-faire* attitude for the teacher, neither does "freeing the capacity to teach" suggest that the principal is best who does least about up-grading instruction and the curriculum in his school. It does mean that the principal presupposes that, within his teaching staff, there is tremendous potential for teaching, that there is abundant, meaningful content to be learned, that there are exciting new techniques designed to improve teaching, and that there are types of organization which hold promise for creating a more stimulating climate for learning.

If we assume the role of the junior high-school principal is to "free capacity to teach," what competencies, then, are required of him if he is to fill this role adequately?

1. *He must be proficient in a teaching area.* I doubt if there are many really good principals who have not also been excellent teachers. A good background in one of the disciplines is important if the principal is to give adequate leadership in curriculum development. His experience in his own teaching field is a point of departure as he assists teachers in other areas to select and organize their material in the best manner.

2. *He must have developed a workable philosophy of education.* This philosophy must not be kept "under wraps." The faculty should be aware of this philosophy and know that the principal is willing to take a stand on major issues which relate to it. This is not to say that the principal should expect that his faculty will adopt his philosophy. It is based upon the assumption that all teachers need to have a workable philosophy of their own, but that it is not reasonable to expect this to be the case if the principal is unwilling or unable to describe his own.

3. *He must understand human development.* Junior high-school pupils are in a most interesting, stimulating, and challenging age group. The possibilities for assisting them to select values and standards of the highest order are enormous. On the other hand, without a good basic understanding of the characteristics of this age group, teachers and principals have found them to be most trying. A principal who has meager understanding of human development can scarcely be of assistance to teachers who are in close daily contact with pupils whom Dr. Fritz Redl describes as

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going through a period of "organismic disorganization." If the principal is conversant with sound research in the field of human development, he can help teachers avoid many faulty and wasteful practices and he can encourage a choice of content with which pupils of junior high-school age can cope.

4. *He must understand the nature and the needs of our society and the direction it is taking.* The content of our curricula has not always been selected on what was most important to meet individual needs or societal needs. With the ever increasing store of knowledge which might be learned, the establishment of priorities becomes more and more crucial. The principal who has little knowledge and understanding of the nature of our society is not likely to be able to give effective leadership in this selection.

5. *He must be able to provide democratic leadership.* Even a perfunctory review of changes in our society should indicate that democratic leadership is the only kind that is likely to be successful in the years ahead. This is just as true for educational leadership as it is for any other type. The principal must be highly competent in sensing the feelings of his staff as well as their intellectual contributions. He must be able to make full use of the ideas of his faculty while at the same time providing effective leadership toward more clearly defined aims and goals and more adequate ways of reaching them.

Fantastic changes have taken place in our society in the past two decades. It is small wonder that junior high schools have experienced pressure to make radical changes. It is quite likely that many inadvisable changes will be made unless the principal equipped with the competencies we have suggested can lead his staff and his community to support and put into action an instructional program that will, in fact, free the teacher and the learner to work in a climate where maximum learning and growth can take place.

ASSESSING THE CONANT REPORT ON THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

CHAIRMAN: *Ernest E. Poe*, Assistant Superintendent, Public Schools, Wheaton, Illinois

INTERROGATORS:

David B. Austin, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

L. P. Camp, Principal, Junior High School, Bessemer, Alabama

Daryl W. Shaw, Principal, Montgomery Blair Senior High School, Silver Spring, Maryland

Summary of the presentation made by LAWRENCE E. VREDEVOE

Paper read by Lloyd W. Waller, Principal, Mira Costa High School, Manhattan Beach, California.

EVERYONE is happy with the Conant report on the junior high school. The school board member who has resisted unification of elementary- and secondary-school districts points to the findings that there is no proof of superiority of the three-year over the two-year type of intermediate school. Therefore, grades seven and eight within the elementary district can serve as a satisfactory administrative unit as well as the intermediate school of grades seven, eight, and nine in a unified district.

The principal points out the recommendation for more administrative assistants while at the same time he soft pedals the findings that *good* intermediate schools require *good* administrators who need more time to furnish leadership for the instructional part of the program.

Special teachers are encouraged by the emphasis upon art, music, physical education, and counseling. These teachers so often fail to recognize that the real purpose of these activities is for the development of talents and competence of the individual and not for inter-scholastic athletics, contests, and exhibitions now so frequently found.

Each finds his own answer and justification for his present status or activity by lifting out of context the real significant findings of the study. They are not new and can be found hidden in the dust covered reports of committees of the first decade of this century. There is even danger that certain emphasis will result in subject matter area which will tend to crystallize our present social lag in the program of these grades. If this results, then the report will prove to be a disservice rather than a contribution to the improvement of the program and studies for the intermediate grades. This is the age of research and it demands *rethinking, reorganizing, and new emphasis* upon the development of *competence and talents* of all our students in these grades. *The most significant*

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phase of this report is its emphasis upon a need for a different kind of program to *challenge* the pupils in these grades.

The *junior* high or intermediate school stands between the *child-centered* elementary school and the *subject-centered* high school. In the next two years, the high school will become more *subject centered* as a majority of pupils in the grades prepare for college work with the college requirements dominating the major part of the program. Right or wrong, we must face this change from the school in which a minority were seeking college entrance or advanced academic work to one in which a majority will plan and hope to continue.

The report emphasizes a place for an intermediate school which recognizes the needs and maturity of the pupils enrolled. Too many of our present intermediate schools are either an extension of the elementary or an attempt to ape the senior high school. Perhaps the use of the name *intermediate* rather than *junior* would be better. In our culture the word *junior* indicates that a senior is around and junior hopes sometime to be like *senior*. This has often happened in our intermediate schools. Instead of being a program of transition it has become like senior in its program of studies, interescholastic activities and exploitation for exhibition purposes. The intermediate school should aid the maturing pupil in *developing his talents, good habits of study and citizenship, and an inquiring mind and a recognition for the need of a broad and deep foundation in fundamental skills and knowledge*.

Conant's study clearly indicates the need for a school to provide a program of studies and activities directed by teachers and administrators which meets the needs of this age group and *can challenge each member in it*. The place of the ninth grade, the number of counselors, the subjects and activities to be offered, and other decisions are secondary to the recognition of a need for a *challenging, dynamic program for the developing, inquiring, and maturing adolescent* found in our intermediate grades. A dynamic and challenging program can only be expected where *competent administrators and teachers* direct the program.

The intermediate school must serve as a transition from the elementary to the senior high school. It must recognize thoroughly what has taken place before and what will follow after. It should serve to make the transition from elementary to high school an easier one—not more difficult. The task facing the intermediate school is unique and cannot be satisfactorily carried out by either the elementary or high school. *Quality, competence, challenge, and understanding* are required to justify its place in our educational system.

Summary of the presentation made by DON E. WEATHERMAN

IN ATTEMPTING to evaluate fairly the Conant recommendations and their relationship to our own junior high schools, it has been necessary to make a rather critical analysis of the recommendations and the schools involved. It is necessary to consider many factors in this evaluation, such as the physical plants; the interests, capabilities, and training of faculty members; and the type of organization. Our school system is organized on the K6-3-3 plan, which according to the report is the most common form found in the medium and large sized communities.

Since the junior high school age is known as the "transitional" age, we endeavor to pay particular attention to the teachers employed at this level. This is especially true of the seventh and eighth grades. We try to avoid using those teachers desiring to make the junior high school a stepping stone to a senior high-school teaching position.

In the matter of "Policy Determination and Administration," we think our situation meets Dr. Conant's specifications in all respects. Regarding the definite "Recommendations," we feel some are met in part, some not at all, and some in entirety.

Specifically, and discussing them in the order in which they appeared in the report, I can state that our local schools meet the number one recommendation, "Required Subjects," in part. The basic subjects are required, along with physical education; but the others mentioned are not, they are elective in all three grades.

Recommendation number 2, "New Developments In Mathematics and Science," is not met at present, although we have been and are continuing to devote considerable time and study to this particular phase. Number 3, "Basic Skills," is being met to the best of the ability of our instructional staff. As is so aptly put in the report, "All English teachers at the secondary level should be prepared to teach reading skills, unfortunately they are not." The "Extra-Class Activities," in number 4, are met either during the school day or after school. They are definitely "school sponsored." We naturally endeavor to meet recommendation 5, "Block Time and Departmentalization," but it is almost entirely by the departmentalization method. We have one block-time class in one junior high school at present. Again, in number 6, "Flexibility of Schedule," we can measure up only in part. It is necessary for students in our eighth and ninth grades to make some choices in preparing their schedules. We attempt to group our students homogeneously in academic areas only. This, as well as we can make it, takes care of recommendation 7, "Challenging All Pupils." This practice has been followed for several years. We have been progressing quite rapidly in the employment of guidance and testing personnel, and will undoubtedly meet or surpass that recommenda-

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tion before too long. Recommendation number 9, "Homework, Marking, and Grading," is met in part by our schools, but there is much that can be and should be done in this field.

Recommendations 10, "Program in Grade Nine," and 11, "Minimum Special Facilities," we feel we meet in an entirety. We are now starting sequential planning in grade eight. There is room for improvement in number 12, "Coordination of Subject-Matter Instruction," in our schools. Here again we are making considerable progress with joint meetings on all levels of instruction. However, this is an ever changing factor and will need to be carefully studied on a continuous basis. Our class load closely approximates that set forth in recommendation number 13. We feel that, on a local situation, we meet this recommendation. In evaluating number 14, "Leadership Role of the Principal," we are in need of more help at the present time. We feel that this assistance will be forthcoming as our enrollment approaches the figures set forth in the report.

I have attempted, in the space allotted me, to treat each recommendation separately and briefly. The fact that we do or do not meet recommendations does not necessarily mean that we are in agreement or disagreement with these as stated in the Conant Report.

Summary of the presentation made by WALTER F. FOGG

THE title and the sub-title of Dr. James B. Conant's report on the junior high school are significant. The title, *Education in the Junior High School Years* puts the emphasis where it belongs: on children and their program, not on any formal organization. The sub-title, *A Memorandum to School Boards*, indicates that the report is directed primarily at the lay, rather than the professional reader. Dr. Conant speaks for us, and as usual his message is clear, uncomplicated, and pertinent.

If you are one of the few professionals who have not yet read this report, you may find the following excerpts interesting:

"... the place of grades 7, 8, and 9 in the organization of a school system is of less importance than the program provided. . . ."

"The educational program in grades 7 and 8 should reflect the transitional nature of these grades."

"Satisfactory instruction in grades 7 and 8 requires mature teachers who have both an understanding of children, a major characteristic of elementary-school teachers, and considerable knowledge in at least one subject matter field, a major characteristic of high-school teachers. . . . In addition, it is plain that more teachers are required for 1,000 pupils in grades 7 and 8 than in grades 9-12 if the teaching loads are kept equal."

"A good school invariably means strong leadership by the principal."

Walter F. Fogg is Principal of Scarsdale Junior High School, Scarsdale, New York. Enrollment, 977 in grades 6-8.

"A small fraction of pupils should start algebra in grade 8."

"Some, if not all, pupils should start the study of a modern foreign language on a conversational basis with a bilingual teacher in Grade 7."

"Meaningful homework is profitable in grades 7, 8, and 9; drudgery, however, is not meaningful homework."

"Interscholastic athletics and marching bands are to be condemned in junior high schools; there is no sound educational reason for them and too often they serve merely as public entertainment."

Since Dr. Conant's report is a distillation of his observations in over 200 schools in 23 states, his recommendations cannot be expected to fit perfectly any single local situation. But there is something in this report for everyone. No important controversial issue is neglected. Like the rest of us, the author is frankly uncertain on some questions, but he hits hard when he is sure. He himself characterizes his recommendations as "purposely conservative"; the professional reader may be pardoned if he yearns occasionally for just a bit more "cloud nine" dreaming.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAM AND SERVICES

CHAIRMAN: *George E. Shattuck*, Principal, Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut

INTERROGATORS:

B. A. Deist, Principal, High School, Glen Ridge, New Jersey

Paul M. Kotila, Principal, Graveraet High School, Marquette, Michigan

Stephen E. Smith, Principal, Madison High School, Portland, Oregon

Summary of the presentation made by FLOYD RINKER

THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM AND THE COLLEGE-BOUND STUDENT

THE Commission on English of the College Examination Board will not try to impose a curriculum. A curriculum must be prepared and constantly revised by teachers who know their school and students, and are aware of sound practices employed elsewhere. The best services of an organization like the Commission are to train and retrain teachers, do research, prepare and test teaching materials, write sample syllabi, provide other helps for which there seems to be a real need, and labor to improve the working conditions of English teaching. Its operation small and its budget limited, the members of the Commission early decided

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to limit the Commission's work, at least in the initial years, to college-preparatory students in secondary schools.

Whether writing is communication, thought, or expression—or all of these—we cannot teach it *per se*. Every writer, like every musician, knows that he owes far more to his own long hours of painful practice than to the advice or precepts of his teachers. The teacher's role is important. He must teach the student to look, to question, and to feel. He proofreads, guides, encourages, challenges. He confronts his students with the raw material for thought and feeling. He creates the conditions out of which good writing may eventually grow. But he does not "teach writing," and to judge his efforts exclusively by the written product of his students is absurd. There is desperate need for redefinition.

When only games and chores competed with conversation and books to fill the leisure hours, language, by necessity, was an activity. This is no longer so. At no time has the individual been less dependent on mere verbalism. He can afford to neglect language, to accept passively a bombardment of mass media without the active reaction demanded by intelligent communication.

Literature as now taught fails to fulfill its purpose in the student's life. Reading is for enjoyment as well as profit. Few boys and girls are made lifelong addicts of good reading by a teacher's expert explication or by their acquired ability to handle technical jargon. The young student of literature should experience the joy of discovery, the exhilaration of new ideas and insights. He must find an image of the self he wants to be, of the world in which he wants to live. He must identify with greatness, and face the questions which define the way to wisdom. Without this joy and power, all hunting for climaxes and tracing of images becomes hollow pedantry.

The teacher must never interpose his own mind, interests, techniques, or personality between the student and the page. The teacher of English must be an invisible catalyst between the reader and his book, the writer and his writing. There are many risks involved in teaching English; the curriculum can become an empurpled mixmash, a ritual of mumbo-jumbo in which the teacher practices his own personal witchcraft. No group can match English teachers in slavish accord to their own predilections even at the same time that they are unmatched in fear of defining a small body of essential skill and fundamental truth.

The program of the Commission is outlined in its first printed statement, *Preparation in English for College-Bound Students*. In addition to its summer institutes for teachers now in service, its kinescopes addressed to teachers of English, and its projected publications, the Commission will help organizations and English teachers throughout the country to define sound curricula for college-bound students and to identify effective teaching practices.

Summary of the presentation made by WALTER AUFFENBERG

AIBS BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES CURRICULUM STUDY

IN THINKING about future biological education, we need to consider the problems of preparing a new generation of scientists and of building scientific literacy for all citizens in a society where national survival may depend on a reasonable understanding of science. To some extent these tasks have always been with us, though at present they seem more demanding and more difficult. The recent explosion of knowledge has produced far more subject matter than has ever been available before. We are thus faced with the prospect of a doubling of our scientific knowledge every decade, while many of our present high-school and collegiate biology courses are already encyclopedic in nature. It is clear that we can no longer settle for the time-honored practice of "coverage" of "facts," since we already have too many "facts" to cover, and many of today's "facts" will be replaced tomorrow with new information.

During the last four years, a number of national curriculum studies, financed by the National Science Foundation, have been established to undertake improvement of science curricula at various educational levels. For biology the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS), was established in 1958 under the auspices of the American Institute of Biological Sciences, a professional society representing over 84,000 biologists. The BSCS is concerned not only with improving the biological subject matter being presented, but also with the manner of presentation, the emphasis and the focus.

In many high schools today, biology consists primarily of either hygiene or animal biology, frequently presented in terms of anatomy. Too often the emphasis is on memorization of long lists of scientific names. And even more commonly, biology is presented as a crystallized science—one in which all the answers are known.

As the BSCS develops a series of high-school biology programs, we hope that all science will be presented as an unending search for meaning rather than as a body of dogma or a series of taxonomic exercises. It is not the purpose of the BSCS to establish a standard or definitive body of knowledge. On the contrary, its main objective is to lead each student to conceive of biology as a science, and of the process of science as a reliable method of gaining objective knowledge.

We are all delighted that there are some realities of accomplishment to which we can now point after two years work. Probably most important is that, at the present time, three experimental versions of a new course in secondary-school biology are actually being tested by 14,000 students over the length and breadth of North America.

Walter Auffenberg is Assistant Director of the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado.

The great success of the Writing Conference last summer is now a matter for historical evaluation. The materials produced (imperfect and preliminary as they admittedly are) inaugurated a tangible program which could be tested and then improved, revised, or discarded.

In this discussion the preparation and testing of new high-school biology courses, laboratory blocks, gifted student materials, foreign utilization, publications, films, and future plans of the BSCS are all discussed. Particular emphasis is placed on the use of revised BSCS experimental editions in Testing Centers during 1961-62.

The aim of the BSCS is to place biological knowledge in its fullest modern perspective. If we are successful, students in the new biology would acquire not only an intellectual and esthetic appreciation for the complexities of living things and their interrelationships in nature, but also for the ways in which new knowledge is gained and tested, old errors eliminated, and an ever closer approximation to truth attained.

Summary of the presentation made by GALEN JONES

A BREAKTHROUGH IN ECONOMIC EDUCATION?

HAS the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education (CASE) achieved a breakthrough in economic education by virtue of its "Economic Literacy Series" of compact textbooks in economics now in nationwide use? The final answer to this question must be left to those who have used the various volumes of the Series. Consequently, an indication of the likely answer may be found by examining the nature and extent of the impact already made by the Council's published units.

Our first two books are in use in high schools in all fifty states and the recently published third unit—*Money and Banking in the American Economy*—promises to be in comparable demand. With the publication of each additional unit the prestige of the Series grows as its usefulness multiplies. The two final volumes of the CASE Series—namely, *Business Enterprise in the American Economy* and *Beginning Readings in Economics*—will appear early this summer. The cumulative effect of all five volumes of the Series in the extension of economic literacy in this country will be incalculable.

Fortunately, it is no longer necessary to argue the case for economic education. The need is generally recognized. Public and private organizations are busily engaged in studying the problem. School people are "sold" on the right of economics to a place in the curriculum. The ques-

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tion today is no longer *Why* economics? or *Whether* economics is of equal importance with the three R's as a school subject. The crucial problem is *What economics* should be taught and learned in the high school.

The volumes of the "CASE Economic Literacy Series" are specially designed with the needs and capacity of the senior high-school student in mind. This has been done largely by judicious selection of content, skillful presentation, use of a simple and lucid style, and provision of suitable end-of-chapter materials. An enumeration of the several volumes in the Series, together with a brief description of the contents of each, follows.

CASE Economic Literacy Series, No. 1—American Capitalism: An Introduction for Young Citizens, 1958, 128 pp.

To all intents and purposes, this is the basic text in the Series. It presents essential economic principles and concepts, sets forth the foundations of a free-enterprise economy, and provides a simple analytical picture of how a market system operates. While this unit is not a stated prerequisite, its prior study undoubtedly offers the student an easier introduction to a difficult subject and makes for quicker comprehension of the other units.

CASE Economic Literacy Series, No. 2—Capitalism and Other Economic Systems, 1959, 132 pp.

This volume meets head on a vital need in general education today. It traces the development of capitalism, communism, fascism, and socialism and appraises each from the point of view of freedom and democracy. Thus the unit helps the citizen better to understand and appreciate our own economy and, indirectly, our political institutions as well.

CASE Economic Literacy Series, No. 3—Money and Banking in the American Economy, 1960, 112 pp.

This unit covers simply and lucidly a difficult but basic area of economics. It develops the essential understandings about our monetary system: how society uses money; the crucial role of demand deposits; the Federal Reserve System and its control of banks and the money supply through required reserves; how money, interest rates, and prices are related; and inflation and means of stabilizing the price level. One banker pronounces it the most excellent book he has ever read on banking.

CASE Economic Literacy Series, No. 4—Business Enterprise in the American Economy

This book is in process of completion and will be published in June (1961). It states the foundations of our socio-economic system on which business enterprise rests. It indicates some recent changes in the system and some resulting modifications in the character and scope of American business. The volume also discusses some of the major problems of an industrial society and illustrates a procedure for thinking through these problems to defensible conclusions.

CASE Economic Literacy Series, No. 5—Beginning Readings in Economics

The compilation of this book of readings has already been completed; target date for its publication is June (1961). The selections are intended to complement the first four volumes of the CASE Series, either in elucidation or in amplification of what is said therein. Each selection has been carefully appraised from the point of view of its suitability for the senior high-school reader. Such a compilation of supplemental materials, with diverse pieces to be assigned or chosen as time permits or interest dictates, makes of the Series a notably adaptable teaching instrument.

The four teaching-learning units and the book of *Readings* are tailor-made for the high school. They are small enough in size to fit easily into any social studies course. They are designed specifically for senior high-school use. They exemplify the Council's view that effective and usable economic understanding can best be developed *through systematic training, under the guidance of a competent teacher, by use of sound teaching-learning materials, in a classroom situation.*

The Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, through its "Economic Literacy Series," has demonstrated beyond peradventure (1) that even so *controversial* a subject as economics can be presented acceptably if it is done objectively, and (2) that even so *difficult* a subject as economics can be made comprehensible and meaningful to high-school students if it is presented with simplicity, clarity, and skill.

The "CASE Economic Literacy Series" stands out as a pioneer and unique contribution to economic education. Understandably, perhaps, the Council takes justifiable pride in its Series of volumes in economics for the secondary school. Does its achievement constitute a break-through in economic education? The dividing line between justifiable pride and unseemly boastfulness is clear though tenuous. We must be content to wait upon others less partial than ourselves, therefore, for the answer to this question.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN E. DOBBIN**COOPERATIVE PLAN FOR GUIDANCE AND ADMISSIONS**

THE high school normally spends three to four years collecting information about a student—a wealth of information needed by employers and college admissions officers—but much of this information never is communicated beyond the school walls because there is no convenient means for summarizing and transmitting it. On the other hand, high schools could do a far better job of teaching and guiding their students if they had access to information about the college and job success of

John E. Dobbin is Project Director, Educational Testing Service, 20 Nassau Street, Princeton, New Jersey.

their recent graduates. This information, too, is limited in its usefulness because there is no systematic means for transmitting it back to the high schools.

There is a method for communicating this vital information about students—for communicating it from high schools to employers and admissions officers, and for communicating similar information back to high schools from colleges and employers. The method is being tried out this year in Georgia, where high schools and colleges and employers together have developed a system which they call the Georgia Cooperative Plan for Guidance and Admission.

The Cooperative Plan is an idea rather than a "package" of procedures; as such it is amenable to adoption and modification in an infinite variety of ways by the schools and colleges of other states. Some of the more interesting aspects of the Plan being tried out in Georgia are:

1. All the high schools adopting the Plan use the same materials and procedures in recording course grades, test scores, activities, interests, and personal information for each student (Report cards are automatic by-products of this procedure!).

2. At the end of the junior year, a single sheet bearing three years of coded information for every student is sent to a central processing agency for summarizing (in this instance to ETS).

3. When school opens in the fall, the principal receives for every senior a complete printed summary of three years of grades and all other information—with up to six *carbon copies*. These summary reports have spaces for later entry of senior year grades and principal's recommendations. When the student wishes to apply for a job or for admission to college, the high-school office just tears off one of the copies and mails it—a *complete performance record* of the student during his high-school years, ready to mail without copying or transcription. The colleges of Georgia, working with the high-school people in a joint steering committee, have helped to work out the content of this report and have agreed unanimously to accept it as the complete high-school transcript.

4. The summary report for each student has attached to every copy a "feedback" form which is used by colleges and employers to note the progress of students one year after graduation from high school. These forms are simply mailed to the processing agency, there to be sorted by high school, summarized, and returned to the schools.

5. The cost of the whole process, including the materials, is less than the average school spends for traditional pupil-record materials alone.

6. There are two key ingredients to this improved system of communication: (a) cooperative action among the schools and colleges of a large area, and (b) application of new electronic methods for speedy and inexpensive data processing. Cooperation is of the essence.

Further information may be obtained from Wesley W. Walton at Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey, or from Rufus D. Pulliam of the Georgia State Department of Education in Atlanta.

RADIATION AND FALLOUT—BENEFITS AND HAZARDS

CHAIRMAN: *Howard G. Spalding*, Principal, A. B. Davis High School, Mount Vernon, New York

INTERROGATORS:

James M. Becker, Director, Foreign Relations Project, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Chicago, Illinois
R. S. Brown, Principal, Monroe Junior High School, Omaha, Nebraska
Howard G. Kirksey, Dean of the Faculty, Middle Tennessee State College, Murfreesboro, Tennessee

Summary of the presentation made by DUNCAN CLARK

NUCLEAR radiation is a complex subject, yet the non-scientist needs to have some understanding of its fundamentals if he is to make intelligent judgments on the use and control of radiation in our society. These decisions should not be left to the scientist alone, because the basic question involved is not a scientific one. This question is: "How much risk am I as an individual willing to take, and how much am I willing to see the great mass of individuals called society take, in order to receive a certain benefit?" The scientists can help the rest of us to make this decision by defining the degree of risk as best they can, and by indicating the benefits to be expected. But they are no more expert than the layman to decide whether or not a certain degree of risk is "acceptable."

This is not a unique problem. Consciously or unconsciously, we have to make such decisions every day. We make them when we decide to go for a drive or take our family to the beach for a swim, or when we support or oppose the building of a new highway or an airport. Public officials make them when they decide that a certain bacteria count in water or milk is acceptable, or that the speed limit in a city should be 25 miles an hour rather than 15 or 45. All of these judgments involve the weighing of factual information, but basically they are value judgments.

If this kind of decision is so commonplace, why have decisions regarding the use of radiation caused so much public discussion? Some of the reasons can be identified. *First*, exposure to small doses of radiation involves a degree of risk which, although it is small to any individual, cannot be stated precisely on the basis of present scientific knowledge. *Second*, scientists may have differing opinions on what amount of risk is "acceptable," even if they are in agreement on the factual data involved. *Third*, radiation is frightening to many people because it is imperceptible to the senses and because they do not know how to differentiate between relatively dangerous and relatively safe circumstances of radiation ex-

Duncan C. Clark is Director of the Office of Public Information, U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, Washington 25, D. C.

posure. *Fourth*, many people do not have a clear idea of the benefits to be gained from the controlled use of radiation. *Fifth*, the wartime genesis of atomic energy and the fear of nuclear war tend to color reactions to the peaceful uses of atomic energy.

The layman does not have to turn himself into a nuclear scientist in order to understand the basic principles involved in the use and control of radiation. After all, most of us do not know a great deal about how an automobile works or what electricity is, yet we ride in automobiles and use electricity in our homes. This is because we have some idea of the degree of risk involved, and understand that it can be kept statistically low by proper safeguards. We can discriminate between situations of low risk, such as plugging an electric cord into a socket, and situations of higher risk, such as grasping a live wire while standing in a puddle of water.

Knowledge of a few basic principles of radiation makes possible the same kind of general understanding of radiation hazards and their control. With such knowledge, the layman can understand, for example, whether or not a properly controlled facility for the handling of radioactive wastes in his community is more dangerous than, for example, a gasoline storage facility.

The secondary schools have an important role in promoting this kind of understanding of radiation. It should not be limited to the student who is going to enter a scientific career, or even the student who is going on to college. Discussion of the problems involved has a proper place in social science courses as well as in physics, chemistry, and biology classes. We need to equip the young people of today to play an intelligent role in the atomic age, just as we have had to face the problems created by the use of electricity and the internal combustion engine.

Summary of the presentation made by JAMES L. LIVERMAN

(Unable to be present)

SINCE the abrupt leap into the atomic age with the advent of nuclear weapons in 1945, man has devoted more and more of his efforts toward understanding and utilizing the energy of the atom for useful and peaceful purposes. Today radio-active atoms are used as tracers to study metabolic processes in biology and to diagnose and treat diseases in man himself. The tracer technique has been of value in improving methods of feeding farm animals, of fertilizing soil for better plant growth, for determining better methods of pesticide application, *etc.*

Radio-active sources are being used to treat cancer, to produce better varieties of crop plants, to aid in the eradication of various insect pests, *etc.*

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There are, of course, certain hazards involved in the use of radio-active materials but, as with many hazardous materials, for instance pesticides, a reasonable degree of caution will insure safety to the users. Fallout arising from the nuclear weapons tests in this and other countries constitutes a small portion of the total hazard from radiation. Hazards from radio-active material in the future could arise from the improper disposal of radio-active wastes from reactors and other sources in the atomic energy industry. Improper use of X-rays also contribute to this total hazard from radiations.

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE L. GLASHEEN

IN AN effort to aid people in attaining a reasonable understanding of radiation, (its beneficial as well as its harmful effects), the Commission is prepared to assist educators in the establishment of institutes or seminars for social studies teachers as well as for those in the science disciplines. This assistance may consist of actual planning of program content, the securing of speakers, and the furnishing of appropriate films and literature.

In addition, the Commission makes available to students and teachers, upon request, packets of informational material, geared, as nearly as possible, to the specific grade level or subject area of the student or teacher concerned.

The Commission, in cooperation with the National Science Foundation, also conducts, at various colleges and universities throughout the country and at its own laboratories and installations, training courses in the handling and use of radioisotopes. With this training and with the equipment furnished the teacher, it is expected that he can establish fruitful courses on the phenomena of radiation at the secondary-school level.

The Commission works with other groups than educational. It offers seminars for the press and labor organizations and it works closely, in this regard, with the professional and scientific societies concerned. Further, it encourages community associations to set up lecture series on such subjects as may be akin to their interests, such as waste disposal, fallout, and radiation effects in general. The purpose? To broaden the base of public understanding in this country as to the true facts concerning radiation and the beneficial uses it holds in store for people everywhere—not only in America, but throughout the world.

George L. Glasheen is Special Assistant for Public Affairs, U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, Washington 25, D. C.

HOW DEVELOP AN EFFECTIVE IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAM?

CHAIRMAN: *Shelby Counce*, Director of Secondary Education, City Schools, Memphis, Tennessee

INTERROGATORS:

Sister Jean Patrice, Principal, Cathedral High School, Denver, Colorado
LeRoy Ludeman, Principal, Washington Park High School, Racine, Wisconsin

Ovid F. Parody, Chief, Secondary Schools Section, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by **EDGAR M. DRAPER**

(Unable to be present)

IN-SERVICE teacher training usually implies that a program has been planned and organized in a school district for the purpose of promoting and realizing professional growth of staff members. Evaluation of in-service education is concerned with teacher growth in developing competencies in subject-matter fields, in relating learning experiences to the needs and interests of all pupils, and in helping pupils make adjustments in their personal and social relationships in the school and in the community.

The concept of in-service education has been modified continuously throughout the past century as new programs for the pre-service training of teachers have been developed in institutions of higher education. Since the establishment of the first teachers' institute to continue the professional growth of teachers completing the courses offered in the early normal schools, in-service teacher training has continued to be a significant aspect of teacher education. A statement by Horace Mann in 1845 presents the need for in-service education in that era, as well as the program outlined for the early institute: "It is the design of a Teachers' Institute to bring together those who are actually engaged in teaching Common Schools, or who propose to become so, in order that they may be formed into classes, and that these classes, under able instructors, may be exercised, questioned, and drilled in the same manner that the classes of a good Common School are exercised, questioned, and drilled."¹

The teachers' institute has been under severe attack in the present century, and county superintendents and state offices of public instruction

¹ A Circular addressed: "To Public School Teachers" by Horace Mann, September 1, 1845.

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have been using institute funds in their budgets for more effective in-service programs. Teachers, who were deficient in both academic and professional skills, were graduated from inadequate pre-service teacher training programs in the nineteenth and early twentieth century. The lowly status of teachers was the only justification for the development of the institute and the reading circle as remedial rather than in-service education.

The present-day program of in-service education has been developed through the co-operation of the staffs of teachers colleges and colleges of education and the staffs of public school systems. These co-operative efforts have been evidenced in ever extending programs of classes, workshops, and conferences at institutions of higher education, and in the development of workshops, conferences, and co-operative action research studies in the public schools. In both instances, staffs of academic and professional departments in teacher training institutions plan with school district staffs in arranging consultative services for the local districts. In-service education on the campus and in school districts has contributed greatly to the professional status of public-school teachers and to their effectiveness in classroom and staff activities. It is also important to point out that such co-operative studies and consultative activities have reacted very favorably on the campuses of the participating institutions in stimulating continuous study of the pre-service professional curriculum and the certification requirements for teachers. As a result, modifications in the professional pattern of pre-service teacher training presently are being studied by committees and commissions made up of representatives from the public schools as well as from institutions of higher education.

In-service education for teachers currently is developing in the following patterns:

1. *On campus.* Provisional certification of teachers has stimulated planning by the staffs of public schools and institutions of higher education for further training of new teachers in both academic and professional fields. The training is usually provided by the teacher training institutions and the teacher goes back to the campus for summer school work, extension classes, or enrolls in correspondence courses. Professional requirements for advancement on the salary scale generally stimulate older teachers to enroll for campus courses in professional and academic fields.

2. *In public schools.* The professional and academic staffs of institutions of higher education go to the public schools to serve as consultants. They may confer with newly certificated teachers and assist with problems related to content, methods, or resource materials. They may develop or assist in the development of in-service education programs for groups of teachers and supervisors, for teachers in a particular subject matter field, or for one or more teachers who need assistance in the classroom or in developing an action research project.

In a large university, such as the University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, the in-service education has been organized under the direction of a professor of education and includes a staff of approximately forty-five professors in education and in academic fields. More than twenty-six academic and professional departments are participating in making available consultants for both large and small school districts throughout the state. It is the responsibility of the director to visit school districts, to consult with school administrators, supervisors, and teachers concerning their needs in the field of in-service education, and to assist in the planning of programs and in arranging for the services of consultants from the campus.

The consultants from the campus may participate in workshops prior to the opening of school and during the school year, or in action research projects in the school district which may be organized in one school, or in all schools of the district. In-service education activities are arranged to meet the needs of the school district. Prior to the work in the district, representatives of the school district often spend one day or more on the campus meeting consultants and discussing the scope of the project and the resources needed by the staff. In many instances, such in-service education programs in the district will be followed by a specialized extension course geared to the particular needs of the teachers engaged in the study. In-service education, as organized at the University of Washington, is a non-credit, co-operative study by staff members representing the University and the local district. It may involve one visit, several visits, or may be developed as a special program with regular visits throughout the year. In many instances, a truly significant extension course, carrying credit, may be organized as a result of the in-service program for teachers. The extension course may be offered in the school district or on campus, and the credits may be utilized as professional credits in the school district; as professional credits in meeting certification requirements; and, within certain limitations, as graduate credits in advanced degree requirements at the university.

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE W. MEYER

WITHOUT a doubt the facets of this problem are familiar to all. The first and last presenters will, I am sure, cover adequately the philosophic aspects of the question. However, I retain the privilege to state the case simply as I see it, and also it seems reasonable to mention a limited number of criteria. Simply stated, a continued study of the job on the job for growth in the job, through self help with ultimate benefits

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derived by the persons involved, appears to be a reasonably practical approach to in-service training.

There are many criteria of a sound in-service education program. I shall enumerate four which are in my opinion essential to a successful program. In the *first place* the participants, a faculty as a whole or a selected group, must recognize, appreciate, and understand the need for the study of a particular problem or condition. *Next*, the faculty or affected group (*i.e.*; science, English, or extra-activity), either as a whole or through committee, must share in planning, deciding, and changing the program. *Third*, a sense of unity must characterize the activities of the working group; *that is*, a sense of "oneness" or "ourness" should permeate the performance of any in-service project. *Finally*, failing not to recognize that many other judgments may be applied, there should be evidence of an improved educational program through better service to the youth affected.

The areas in which in-service education operate include all features of the school and its relations to the community. It involves the entire system, a level, a school, custodial, administrative, cafeteria, *et al.* In fact, at one time or another it includes, collectively or individually, every one associated with the school system.

The motivating force may stem from an administrator or from the suggestion or possibly the insistence of the most self-abnegating staff member. An administrator must be ever alert to the signs and signals. Upon identification of the issue, the process of evaluation follows. If it appears to have merit, we assess it to discover applicability. A superintendent or principal should not permit his single judgment to favor or contradict a proposal. We toss the suggestion about before we draw conclusions. Upon acceptance of a problem or an issue for study, we establish the method of attack and operation. At this level, the criteria, as stated above, are employed to assure that the study and proposed solution of the problem have the benefit of wholehearted support and action of the affected group.

Obviously, in-service education need not be confined to the immediate scene. Many invaluable opportunities exist beyond the walls. We send our head custodian, at intervals, to conferences. Custodians and bus drivers are encouraged to visit the exhibits annually at the N.J.E.A. Convention, nearby, also to do likewise at the biennial convention of the A.A.S.S. in Atlantic City. Our cafeteria manager and helpers attend area sessions organized by the Lunchroom Service Unit of the State Department of Education. We send representatives to subject matter group meetings on area or state level. For example: our student council received a great stimulus through the fact that one of our students became treasurer of the N.J.S.S.C.A. The great value came through the increased knowledge and enthusiasm of our local sponsor who accompanied this treasurer to the State Executive Committee meetings. Naturally, we encourage our faculty members to attend appropriate conventions, to

belong to, and, where practicable, to hold office in state-wide subject matter associations. Each year we recommend a selected number of our personnel to serve on visiting committees for the Commission on Secondary Schools. This we recognize as a most salutary experience. These experiences are largely informal and individualized; however, they serve as a "little leaven in the whole loaf."

The accepted on-the-scene, local in-service activities have been alluded to at various places in this summary. I shall not go into detail. A local study of a problem, one in cooperation with contributing districts, or a variety requiring consultant services all can be found in operation in any good school system. Currently, we are in the early operational stages of self-evaluation. This operational phase has come about after a long period of planning by our "steering committee." We trust that, by the spring of 1962, our staff, for the third time, (scarcely the identical staff) will have profited by a soul-searching, in-service project which will ultimately benefit the students of our school.

Summary of the presentation made by ADOLPH UNRUH

THE RATIONALE

ONE of the assumptions underlying the organization of an in-service education program is that teachers, whether newly graduated or experienced, must be constantly improving themselves. New graduates are hardly ready to undertake the professional duties and responsibilities which will devolve upon them. Older persons need the encouragement and stimulation to keep themselves intellectually and professionally alert. Their fields of knowledge change and the nature of their tasks changes. These challenges can be met best through a formalized structure and under the conditions provided by the school system.

If the objectives of the program are to be achieved, then there must be an assessment of all its aspects. Standards of the program and the quality of the results can be maintained only through a vigorous evaluation. Effective assessment provides the basis for new objectives, for new approaches and attacks on those objectives, for revising the program, and for any changed emphases. Furthermore, evaluation paves the way for constructive and dynamic leadership.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ASSESSMENT

Certain principles underlying the assessment of an in-service education program follow. They may be used as criteria and instruments of measurement developed around them. The *first* principle states that the pro-

Adolph Unruh is Professor of Education, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.

gram must meet the needs of the teacher, both individually and in groups, when common needs are discovered. It is a serious mistake to impose a program and to require all teachers to attend it. The psychology of individual differences would certainly not support such a procedure. Participation is the *second* principle and demands that teachers should be involved in the development of the program from the beginning (discovering and developing the objectives) to the actual evaluation. The *third* principle requires that the concepts and skills of good human relations be practiced. It is the human worth and dignity principle. Everyone's wishes must be considered; personal factors are very important.

The *fourth* principle is variety which observes that no two people are alike. Therefore, the program of in-service education should be composed of a variety of group and individual projects and activities. It follows then, as the *fifth* principle, that there must be freedom for the individual to make choices from the program offered. There should be freedom to explore interests and talents, freedom to grow professionally, and freedom to do some things in a unique way.

Finally, one can insist that there must be evidence of growth and recognition of progress. The business of gathering evidence is the responsibility of the supervisor or principal, but it is an educational function in which all participants engage.

METHODS OF ASSESSMENT

The methods of assessment should provide for the collection of a variety of types of information, data, and opinions. Instruments constructed by the staff and faculty and based on the principles listed above provide the data. There should be tests and checklists, some of which contain provisions for scaling responses. All participants—teachers, consultants, *etc.*—should be asked to evaluate their activities. Numerous research designs can be created to study these data, and there must be an insistence on intellectual honesty at this point.

Evidence can be collected bearing on a number of factors including teacher turn-over, the amount and types of graduate study faculty members have recently undertaken, the morale of the faculty, and the number and nature of the promotions which have come to the participating faculty from both within and from without the system. Also, evidence of increased pupil learning and achievement could be utilized as indirect measures to reflect the effectiveness and quality of the in-service program of education provided for the faculty and staff.

A NEW ISSUE IN GROUPING— VERTICAL ENRICHMENT VS. HORIZONTAL ENRICHMENT

CHAIRMAN: *B. Roy Daniel*, Principal, High School, Norman, Oklahoma

INTERROGATORS:

Phillip H. Geil, Principal, Audubon Junior High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Alexander M. Moore, Principal, Crispus Attucks High School, Indianapolis, Indiana

Paul Petrich, Principal, Junior-Senior High School, Hanover, New Hampshire

Summary of the presentation made by ABRAHAM H. LASS

ABRAHAM LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL (among the ten largest in the nation) is meeting the challenge of "bigness" by providing an individually tailored program for each pupil in each subject matter area. The school is committed to the principle that all excellences and all disabilities are specific. So, it is possible for a student to rank high in his English studies and rather low in his mathematics and science. Recognizing this fact, the school has devised the necessary machinery and curricula to meet the wide variations to be found among students and within the individual students.

The school carries out its commitments through a carefully wrought identification program, through individualized scheduling of pupils (no block programming), through differentiated curricula and methodologies, and through guidance and extracurricular programs designed to provide for each pupil according to his needs and abilities. In our democracy, the school feels that it has an obligation to see to it that "no voice is lost."

Summary of the presentation made by HAROLD H. METCALF

THE term enrichment has different meanings to different people. The book, *Working with Superior Students*, states that regardless of how adequately a school handles the problem of grouping, grade placement, and guidance, the major question in educating talented youngsters remains unanswered: How should the actual course content and teaching

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Harold H. Metcalf is Superintendent of Bloom Township High School and Community College, Chicago Heights, Illinois.

method be differentiated for these students? The easy answer is: enrich the curriculum, but enrichment like the weather is something everybody talks about and few do anything about. We don't really know what enrichment is. Does it mean accelerated coverage of a standard course of study, followed by advanced content in a given discipline; for example, completing elementary algebra in the eighth year and thus, in the twelfth year, having time for a course in calculus? Does it mean digging more deeply or extensively in an area; for example, studying original documents of some historical period? Or does it mean increased independent and creative work in some field of individual interest? Perhaps, the very word enrichment is a misnomer; perhaps what is needed is not embellishment of existing course content but different content. Despite the plethora of "promising practices" suggested by and for teachers, these questions remain substantially unanswered.¹

The above excerpt on enrichment leads me to the point that the title, "A New Issue In Grouping—Vertical Enrichment Versus Horizontal Enrichment" is not an issue. Vertical enrichment and horizontal enrichment are inseparable concomitants of one another.

The most effective high-school teachers are those who have the capacity to take a group of students at the beginning of the year, and through impact of personality and use of devices of one kind or another, provide for each an incentive and a plan. To be effective, I contend that the high-school teacher must have capacity to individualize instruction to a greater or lesser extent, because every group of high-school students however selected will vary greatly in capacities, interests, goals, response to stimuli, and in other respects.

Enrichment within the classroom centers around the assignment. Instead of assigning a number of pages of reading in a text, teachers may suggest a number of avenues of interest, study, or investigation. Students are stimulated to proceed on their own beyond the basic requirements of a course through use of such techniques as oral and written reports, differentiated assignments, independent research, and experimental work. Thus, the individuality of the student and his capacity to learn become important factors in his progress.

At Bloom Township High School, which is large and comprehensive in nature, 700 ninth-grade students have, on the basis of tests, results, and previous school records, been placed in the following classifications in English: mentally handicapped, but educable; remediable; slow; average; fast; fast fast; and accelerated. *The California Algebra Aptitude Test* was used to determine those who would enroll in algebra and in general mathematics. Within the general mathematics and within the algebra, further grouping was done on the basis of an intelligence test, previous school records, and scores on the algebra aptitude test. Those in accelerated English were placed in accelerated general science in

¹ Bruce Shertzer. *Working with Superior Students*. Chicago: Science Research Associates. Pp. 55, 56.

which much emphasis is given to laboratory approach. Content, assignments, methods of instruction, motivation devices, and emphases are differentiated and individualized in sections capable of doing superior work. Both vertical and horizontal enrollment are involved and students progress at their own pace.

Bloom is also providing opportunity for individual students to proceed more nearly at their own pace through team teaching. Three teams, each consisting of an English and a social studies teacher, are working with eleventh-grade students in American literature and American history. The plan provides opportunity for the eighty-one students to be together for large-group instruction for a two-hour block of time. It also provides for small-group and highly individualized teaching involving principles outlined previously in this paper.

Summary of the presentation made by WILLARD C. OLSON

MANY specific proposals are being advanced currently for the development of quality in education, for adjustment to individual differences, and for maximizing the talents of gifted youth. They often involve plans for enrichment within a heterogeneous class or group, for ability grouping within a subject, or for acceleration through a sequence of courses in a subject area, with or without an attempt to have the student cover a fixed span of grades in reduced time.

The practical school administrator is faced with the dilemma of having many partialist advocates of particular practices, on the one hand, and finding little consistent and positive evidence for making a decision on the other. In general, proponents of ability grouping, honors classes and schools, and advanced placement suffer a rude shock when controlled evaluative studies are made with the conventional criteria. The differences are often those that would be expected on the basis of chance. Under these conditions an examination of a theoretical framework would appear to be overdue so that the reasons for the indifferent and inconsistent influence of organization for instruction can be better understood.

A basic difficulty is the tendency to under-estimate the range and stability of individual differences in pupils. Graduates of a select high school may be expected to vary from the fourth to the sixteenth grade in comprehension in reading and in other areas of common learnings. It is naive to believe that any "trick" of organization or method will "cure" these differences.

Consideration of a theoretical model based on studies of individual differences, learning, and growth may give us more precise guides for interpretation and for decision making.

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In the following equation, "maturation" applies to the factors residing in the individual and "nurture" applies to the intake from the environment. The product of these is represented by "development."

Maturation x Nurture = Development. As applied to education we may rewrite the equation as follows: *Maturation x Experience = Achievement.*

If we start with a group of children or youth who are equal in the maturational component, subsequent differences in achievement may be traced to the experience component.

The reason why many logically feasible schemes seem unproductive of results is because there is no real difference in the availability of experience so far as the individual is concerned. A new course of study, an improved textbook, more demanding expectations, and new sensory modes of presentation may have relatively little to do with what the child is able to incorporate. The presence and absence of an experience will make the big differences in the achievement of the above equation. If experience becomes zero, achievement becomes zero. The test of organization is whether it makes a real difference in the responses of the learner.

Let us consider a few illustrative postulates on the relation of the individual to his environment:

1. The organism seeks from the environment according to his readiness and need. Thus if the environmental supply within or without school is adequate, each individual fulfills himself. The existence of a surplus of opportunity is a matter of indifference in so far as achievement is concerned. We learn only our responses. The real threat is deprivation.
2. Organisms in a given environment show the phenomenon of selective uptake, retention, and utilization. Thus in a very limited environment, individual differences still persist, but deprivation may be reflected in averages and range of differences.
3. Experiences not in accord with the readiness of the learner and with his goals are learned with difficulty and are forgotten quickly.
4. Empirical studies testify to the initial rapid loss of most anything that is learned that is not supported in use. This is the fate of much esoteric school learning.
5. Sustained motivation, an intricate complex of ability, experience, and re-enforcement is one of the most precious products of wise educational planning. If this can be obtained, all else follows.

The differences in achievement by varying modes of organization are usually microscopic for areas of common experience while individual differences are macroscopic. The best question to ask of youth for the prediction of future attainment in education is "What can he do?" rather than "What has he had?" Specialized courses and classes may be expected to make the greatest differential impact on individuals when set up for fields representing entirely new experiences to which they can respond successfully.

HOW DEVELOP A DESIRABLE STUDENT BEHAVIOR POLICY?

CHAIRMAN: *Richard F. Stauffer*, Principal, Horton Watkins High School, St. Louis, Missouri

INTERROGATORS:

Murray Delloff, Principal, Herrick Junior High School, Downers Grove, Illinois

Arthur P. Silvester, Principal, Silver Lake Regional High School, Kingston, Massachusetts

Summary of the presentation made by BEN F. WETZEL

ONE of the most perplexing problems in secondary education is that of establishing and maintaining acceptable student behavior. This fact makes it mandatory that secondary schools develop and maintain a desirable student behavior policy, a policy made up of many policies serving as guides within a framework of existing laws, rules, and regulations—policies that may be supplemented, renewed, or augmented to meet the ever changing needs.

The first consideration in establishing such a policy is that of determining what we expect a desirable behavior policy to bring about. In general, a desirable student behavior policy is one which establishes behavior guide lines so that student behavior makes possible the following: (1) maximum learning conditions for all students, (2) maximum utilization of teacher time, (3) maximum amount of student self-direction with a minimum amount of control, (4) maximum safety and welfare of students, (5) understanding and recognition that laws, rules, regulations, and policies will be upheld and enforced, and (6) development of good school morale.

The establishing of outcomes from a desirable student behavior policy upon which we can all agree is a relatively simple matter. Locating preventative causes that hinder the bringing about of desirable behavior outcomes and the establishing of effective policies for corrections and prevention are quite another problem. Although there are many approaches and facets to the problem, one relatively new approach is now in operation at Robert Fulton Junior High School in Van Nuys. Fulton is one of many secondary schools in the Los Angeles City School System with such a program. The program known as Social Adjustment deals directly with student behavior. Basically, the program operates by removing students from classes or other school areas where they are

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creating behavior problems. In areas where they are making satisfactory adjustments, they are allowed to remain. After their removal from areas where they are having difficulty, they are placed with an instructor who is assigned full time to the program.

This instructor, working in cooperation with classroom teachers, counselors, administrators (usually vice-principals), parents, and the students involved, attempts to analyze the causes for the undesirable behavior problem. As the causes are determined, proper therapy is applied where possible. A rather slow, involved process is followed in rehabilitating students with behavior problems back into the regular program. Although this program has many interesting ramifications, of prime concern to this report is that it makes possible a new entry to the real causes of the undesirable behavior of secondary-school students. The fact that students are removed only from areas of difficulty for a reasonable period of time and their problems actually studied gives a much better analysis than "the one shot fix 'em up trip" to the administrator's office. We should facetiously add that it is high time that administrators got back to doing the work the position was originally set up to do!

After having determined the real basic causes for poor behavior, policies may be established applicable to the causes. This helps to eliminate the establishing of policies that inhibit the educational growth of the students. The actual establishing of the policies should follow regularly recognized procedures. All groups concerned with a given policy should be consulted. These groups include administrators, teachers, parents, and pupils.

Summary of the presentation made by RICHARD E. EMERY

IN DEALING with the topic of desirable behavior policy, I am concerned with the true goal sought after by all segments of our world society. If we could ever achieve, among all humanity, a desirable level of behavior, our great social problems would be solved.

An awareness that desirable social behavior patterns are learned and can be conditioned is essential to our discussion. The natural product of each student acting and re-acting, without conditioning, would lead us to destruction. It is, therefore, the obligation of the principal to realize that a desirable student behavior pattern doesn't just happen—it must be created by intelligent staff direction.

Then teacher security is essential in developing a desirable behavior policy. The administration must create an environment in which each teacher is secure in relation to the "boss," the student, and the parents. Without this established sense of security (arrived at by incidents in

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which the teacher's welfare is supported), the teacher cannot feel sure that he has the "right" to demand a high level of behavior from the students.

In the process of developing the general behavior pattern within a school, the family background and culture must be taken into account. The school, unfortunately, must work from the behavioral goals that the home has inculcated in the individual child. Conferences with parents must be used to help the home accept the changed performance patterns that the individual student finds as he develops a better behavioral attitude in the school situation. It is an amazing fact that the vast majority of parents want what the school wants for their children—the best adjustment and relationship to the society and mechanical world that surrounds them. A wise school administrator will capitalize on this common desire to upgrade the home and the school behavioral concepts.

A behavior policy is an illusive, intangible quantity. It cannot be assembled, for viewing, in one place or at any one time. It is the sum and substance of all the activities of home, church, the school, and the students' environment in general. The school's chief administrative head must assume the responsibility for the level and direction of this policy. He sets the tone and creates the environment in which the seed must grow.

The administrator must choose his teachers with care—teachers who are deeply concerned with the real welfare of each and every student. If a student realizes that the school is genuinely concerned about him, he is desirous of measuring up to the expectations of the school—a desirable behavior goal. We are frequently successful in fooling the adults, but children get "our number" quickly.

Everyday incidents establish the validity of the behavior standards. Are teachers required, because of mutual understanding of a fair level of professional performance, to meet classes on schedule, turn in reports on time, follow through on "cuts," carry their full share of extra duties, and, in general, adhere to a high level of teacher efficiency? Can administrators make a decision, after the facts are in, on a given case, or must we delay until we are sure that the possible heat has subsided? For example, do administrators have the courage to bar the "star" performer from athletic competition?

The last few decades have seen our adult population, including educators as well as parents, shy from the more distasteful aspect of discipline—physical control.

Children, more than any other segment of our population, want goals or standards of acceptable behavior patterns to which they can measure. The great sin of our society lies in the destruction of these goals or disregarding them when a youngster errs. Children need goals to which they can measure their performances. Children demand goals and respect the adult who demands their adherence to these patterns in a fair and rational manner. The well-meaning "do-gooder" who says to a young

person who violates a rule or behavior goal—"That's all right, it's your first time,"—is involved in starting the breakdown of that child's respect for the accepted behavior goals of society. Physical discipline is even "welcomed" by the child who knows, in all fairness, that he is wrong and has "it" coming.

In my personal school experience, two factors have heavily influenced the development of our behavior level. The feeling has been developed that school is an extension of the family and that school personnel may be considered two-fold—as teacher or principal, or as dad and mother.

Frequently students feel free to discuss with the father or mother figure, (administrator or teachers), a problem that they would hesitate to bring to the "office." By the same token a breach of behavioral standards can be dealt with more effectively in terms of positive adjustment by a father figure than the official principal of the school. Many students have entered the office of our school and said, "I want to talk to you as dad first." Perhaps the fact that our school draws heavily from a worker class lends to the ease with which this attitude was established.

Another attitude stemming from the child's view of the father figure rests in the certainty of a firm, fair, and consistent action. Judgment is made with full consideration of extenuating circumstances, though a penalty may be assessed. This is essential to maintenance of the goal.

Any major change of accepted standards is discussed in auditorium "fireside type" sessions. Here the principal, at ease in a large over-stuffed chair, discusses the *pros* and *cons* followed by a general discussion of the problem. It is not difficult to arrive at a student consensus. The large mass of students need not be a deterrent to this type of approach for ideas are ideas, if held by one of 1,850 students, and the principal acts as the moderator or sounding board.

An upgrading or strengthening of student behavior goals can be accomplished on a mass basis by use of the "public address system." Conditioning of group behavior can be accomplished by discussing a hypothetical situation with the school administrator setting forth the possible points or areas of behavior breakdown. Positive guidance can be offered by proposing alternative acceptable solutions for these possibilities.

Perhaps the local symphony orchestra is coming to your school next week. Your student body may appreciate "rock and roll." A conditioning session *via* the P.A. or auditorium session can create, at least for a time positive attitudes of school pride, courtesy, good public relations, comparison with other school audiences, *etc.* Each time the student hears and accepts these artificially conditioned standards, it becomes easier for his acceptance of these desirable behavior patterns in this permanent concept.

These discussions and periodical evaluation of desirable behavior goals are essential for these goals are pulsating standards that must be recast as the student body develops and the environment changes. The free use of these mass discussions will have a tendency to keep elevating the level

of pupil performance and their behavioral standards within the school and community.

In the final analysis, nothing can be substituted for the relationships between the individual teacher and the individual pupil. Each one of us can name the teacher or teachers who have so definitely influenced our lives.

The slow process of teacher indoctrination, on a day to day basis, for a generally better performance, is the real key of achieving a high-level desirable student behavior policy that will have lasting and positive effects on a student body.

Summary of the presentation made by SAMUEL CROCKETT

THE success or failure of a principal is, in many instances, determined by his ability to provide leadership in both the development and implementation of a desirable student behavior policy. This is not a job which can be done single handed and overnight; it requires the help and cooperation of several different groups of people and, like curriculum development, must be re-examined regularly.

In the time which is allotted to me I should like to briefly sketch the role of the following in the development and implementation of a desirable student behavior policy: (1) the administration; (2) the school board or school committee; (3) the teachers; (4) the students; and (5) the parents. Each of the preceding groups must be involved to varying degrees in both the development and implementation of a successful student behavior policy.

Although the above groups are not necessarily listed in the order of their importance, there is no question but that the administrative group is definitely the most important both with respect to the development and the implementation of the above mentioned policy. This group includes the principal who should provide the leadership, the superintendent who is the liaison officer between the school and the board of education, the vice-principal, and the guidance director.

As is the case in all phases of the administration of a school, the classroom teacher represents the determining factor in the success or failure of any policy dealing with student behavior. Since the classroom teacher must bear the brunt of administering any behavior policy, it is of utmost importance that the teacher share in the development of such a policy.

The board of education or the school committee is legally entrusted with the operation of the schools and is by law a policy making group. Members of this group provide the liaison between the citizen and the professional educator. Generally speaking the board of education is

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willing to let the professional staff develop the policy dealing with discipline, but it is of utmost importance that the board of education formally approve such policies.

Another group which can and should play a major role in both developing and implementing a desirable student behavior policy is the members of the student body. Contrary to the opinion of the average layman, students are definitely interested in good discipline and will, if given an opportunity, assist in the development and implementation of such a policy. Organizations such as the student council, the student patrol, and the school newspaper can be counted upon to make major contributions in this area.

Although I am definitely opposed to turning over the reins of running the school to the parents, I do feel that this group can be of assistance especially in the implementation of a student behavior policy. If such a policy is to be successful, it must have the backing and support of the parents.

WHAT CAN THE PRINCIPAL OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL DO TO IMPROVE THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM?

CHAIRMAN: *Morris C. Jones, Jr.*, Principal, High School, Stevensville, Maryland

INTERROGATORS:

H'Earl Evans, Principal, High School, Sturgis, Kentucky

Lawrence A. Oviatt, Principal, Henry T. Wing School, Sandwich, Massachusetts

Summary of the presentation made by O. A. KIRK

IT IS the principal's responsibility to see that his school provides a curriculum as complete and varied as the resources of the community and the abilities of his faculty permit. His should be a leveling influence to see that all areas for the educational development of the students are kept in proper perspective and that no one area is built up by sacrificing another. Mathematics, science, and foreign language are important, but possibly in his community greater emphasis needs to be put on industrial arts, commercial, and homemaking. Evaluation of the program should be

O. A. Kirk is Principal of Lakeview High School, Lakeview, Michigan. Enrollment, 610.

a continuing process so that as subjects or courses are added, deleted, or modified such changes will bring about a better educational program.

Possibly the area in which the principal can make his greatest contribution toward improving the educational program is in his relationship with his faculty. By careful assignment of teachers to their fields of greatest interest and ability; by relieving them of burdensome reports; by giving clerical assistance with typing, duplicating, and reporting; and, in other ways, by safeguarding the teacher's time for the real job of teaching, he can expect better results. Teachers should be encouraged to experiment and should be commended for any unusual contribution. The principal of the smaller high school has an advantage here, for it is usually possible to maintain a relationship with each teacher close enough to keep informed regarding his work in the classroom.

The wealth of new materials and constructive writings in all teaching fields is tremendous. Much of this comes to the attention of the principal who can pass it on to, or refer it to, those of his teaching staff who should be interested.

An atmosphere of friendliness and interest should be maintained so that teachers will feel free to discuss problems and plans. Cooperation among teachers should be encouraged. Changes are more acceptable to teachers if they have shared in the responsibility for planning them.

No attempt has been made in this brief report to list all the ways in which the principal can improve the educational program. It is suggested that he should see that his school provides a rich, well-balanced curriculum that serves the needs of the students by adequately preparing them for their role in life. It is further suggested that he can be most helpful by creating an atmosphere wherein teachers can and will work to their greatest efficiency and share in the satisfaction of having helped improve the educational program.

Summary of the presentation made by WILLIAM H. MILNE

THIS presentation is divided into two parts. The first part is a brief discussion of administrative practices in New Hampshire and the second part offers a few suggestions as to possible ways that a principal of a small high school might improve the program of his school. In September 1958, a set of "Minimum Standards and Recommended Practices for New Hampshire Secondary Schools" went into effect. Although it is probably unrealistic that there ever will be complete equality of educational opportunity, it is possible to insure an adequate secondary-school education in terms of minimum standards. Thus, we have described to us

William H. Milne is Principal of Hopkinton High School, Contoocook, New Hampshire. Enrollment, 120.

clearly and specifically the program, staff, and administrative provisions which are the mandatory minimum for an approved high school. Another purpose of the Standards is to recommend certain practices which are extremely desirable. It should be noted that recent legislation in New Hampshire has necessitated a revision of these standards. These revisions have not as yet been acted upon by the State Board.

Our school year has 180 days of 5½ hours each day, a minimum of 25 per cent of the principal's time must be available for administration and supervision, with a full-time principal for 250 or more pupils. No teacher may have a schedule requiring more than five different academic preparations per day, no teacher shall have more than six periods of class instruction per day, all personnel must be fully certificated, class size must not exceed 40, and class periods must be at least 45 minutes in length, exclusive of passing. The minimum course load is four units per year, with sixteen units required for graduation. Of the sixteen units, four must be in English, two in social studies, one in science, and one in mathematics. A minimum program of studies is twenty units in academic subjects, twelve units in vocation and/or practical arts, plus three offerings in the fine arts area.

Suggestions as to ways in which the high-school program might be improved are:

- (1) Go through the process of evaluation. Several things can be gained—accreditation, excellent in-service training for staff, acquisition of needed equipment, gives staff an over-all view, develops a school philosophy, and leads to course improvement.

- (2) Take advantage of community resources particularly where there is an institution of higher learning in the area. This is a valuable means for enrichment or for advanced work. Students can go to the college or the college can come to the students.

- (3) Examine the possibilities of an integrated mathematics program in the tenth and eleventh grade.

- (4) Devise ways and means to break down the feeling that only English teachers are responsible for teaching English.

- (5) Make greater use of correspondence courses to supplement the program.

Summary of the presentation made by H. C. GIESE

THE improvement of the educational program of a small high school can be accomplished in many ways. However, four definite steps should be taken early in the improvement program.

H. C. Giese, Principal of the La Grange High School, P.O. Box 238, La Grange, Texas. Enrollment, 365.

STEP 1: The services of a trained person in the fields of guidance and supervision is imperative. When this person is found, either from the existing faculty or some outside sources, the program can be outlined and a definite plan of procedure developed. It is necessary to have a reliable inventory of the abilities, aptitudes and achievements of each individual pupil in the high school before planning can proceed. This may be obtained by administering standardized aptitude and achievement tests to all pupils. These tests should be administered in strict accordance with the directions of the publishers. It is advisable that these tests be administered by the person in charge of supervision and guidance. This procedure will give the most reliable data and assure the administrator that all data are reliable and comparable.

STEP 2: At the completion of the testing program, the principal is in position to place his pupils intelligently in homogeneous ability groups. It is realized that ability grouping cannot be maintained in some of the elective courses and in some of the vocational courses. However, the ability grouping procedure can be maintained in the required courses and in the solid academic courses. If the grouping procedure is followed in these courses, the elective and vocational courses will be reasonably well grouped because of scheduling technicalities. In determining pupil placement, three factors are ordinarily considered: (a) the pupil's natural ability as reflected by aptitude tests; (b) accomplishments on standardized achievement tests; and (c) teacher judgment based on previous accomplishments and attitudes of the pupil.

STEP 3: After the program is in operation, it is necessary that the testing and evaluation program be continued. It is advisable to give achievement tests in all academic courses near the end of each year. The accomplishments of each pupil must be evaluated before placement in the following years program. It is advisable to reconsider them at the close of each school year and rearrange the groups for the next year before the high-school faculty is released for the summer vacation.

STEP 4: The person in charge of the testing program should be responsible for making all test scores and other data available to all high-school teachers for their professional use in evaluating the abilities and needs of the individual pupils. This information can also be of great value to teachers if it is made available to them in the form of graphs, and scattergrams that reflect the accomplishments of specific classes over a period of several years. In this manner, each teacher will measure his own accomplishments.

With the testing and grouping program in operation, it is possible for the principal to arrange his schedule to provide for at least five academic courses for each pupil in a six-period day. It is realized that this procedure will entail a number of scheduling difficulties and long hours of hard work on the part of the principal. However, it can be accomplished over a period of two or three years. It has been found that this program

will raise the scholastic achievements of small high schools and that it will eliminate many of the disciplinary problems that occur in all high schools. This is possible simply because, with the program in operation, all pupils will be in direct competition with pupils of approximately their own abilities. They will be kept busy with their academic work, with very little time to waste in study halls and non-productive activities.

ENRICHMENT OR ACCELERATION FOR THE ACADEMICALLY TALENTED STUDENT?

CHAIRMAN: *Denton L. Cook*, Supervising Principal, Plant City Schools, Plant City, Florida

INTERROGATORS:

Henry C. Gregory, Principal, Walter Johnson Senior High School, Rockville, Maryland

E. M. Gerritz, Director of Admissions, Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kansas

James M. Robertson, Principal, High School, Southbridge, Massachusetts

Summary of the presentation made by **ROBERT L. FOOSE**

DR. JAMES BRYANT CONANT's affirmation that "a high school accommodating all the youth of a community is typical of American public education . . . that the comprehensive high school . . . has come into being because of our economic history and our devotion to the ideals of the equality of opportunity and equality of status," succinctly describes a system of education unique in the world. As he points out, "an European finds the educational tasks facing the teachers and administrators of a comprehensive high school almost beyond his comprehension. . . . But the system," he goes on, "works. Most of us like it and it appears to be as permanent a feature of our society as most of our political institutions."

It was an exciting challenge American secondary schools faced by the mid 30's and early 40's, to find the proper content and methods that would serve effectively every young person of school age—a dream come true, Education for All American Youth. By the mid 50's, critics of the educational system, armed with rapidly rising tax bills and evidence that not all "graduates" were as knowledgeable or capable as the products of some of the historically selective educational systems, began a barrage that threatened for a time to throw panic into the ranks of the public

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and many educators. Sputnik, launching the Space Age, added fuel to the controversial fire.

But American education, long committed to the theory of recognizing and dealing with individual differences, with significant experience in the study of the learning process of the adolescent, and the certain knowledge that American schools have played a major role in building the strength of this country, was prepared to accept the challenge of an ever-changing society and to seek new ways of developing quality education.

The spotlight inevitably turned to the academically superior and talented student. What could be done to help him realize his greatest potential? Assuming that he could be properly identified, could he be educated best by segregating him, by accelerating his program, by enriching the course content, or by some yet undiscovered method.

Experimentation from the local to the national level began in unprecedented fashion. Studies of the needs and characteristics of the talented were initiated. Tests to help in identification were devised. Proponents of the various theories became extraordinarily vocal. Through all the din and turmoil, calm voices continued to prevail. They reminded us that: (1) we must continue to work toward improving the quality of all of our teaching—the kind that emphasizes understanding and interpretation of facts rather than rote learning, the kind that emphasizes high standards of performance without sacrificing the natural laws of adolescent growth; (2) we must continue to utilize as effectively as possible our comprehensive high schools which are a truly American phenomenon, unique in the world; and (3) we must not reject any of our manpower potential from becoming functioning members of our democratic society.

From her academically talented, America has the right to expect leadership in the fields they should be qualified to provide. Hence the first goal of any educational program for them should be the development of the qualities of positive leadership in a modern world. How we can best prepare the potentially outstanding young mathematician and scientist to assume leadership in making the scientific breakthrough of the future, or the artistically gifted youngster to make significant contributions to our culture, or the child with unlimited creative ability to demonstrate leadership in the humanities has not yet been solved by any single method. As a matter of fact, programs for these students probably will have to be more flexible than those for any other segment of our population.

The question then of enrichment or acceleration becomes purely academic. Why not both? Cyril Wolcott, speaking at this national convention two years ago, reported that his experience as principal of Hunter College High School for the intellectually gifted in New York City led him to believe that all of the research evidence points to the conclusion that enrichment is not more desirable than acceleration. He pointed out that a certain amount of acceleration seems to be required if the education of academically talented students is to be meaningful.

Beyond question the trend has been in this direction. The Advanced Placement Program of the College Entrance Examination Board is now well established. Frank Bowles has gone so far as to predict that, in time, talented students will be completing their college freshman work in the last year of high school. The early admission program to college continues to attract students. Our National Association has been conducting studies for several years in the fields of mathematics, science, foreign languages, and the language arts in which recommendations have been made for some acceleration of intellectually gifted youngsters. Across the country countless states, regional associations, and local communities have embarked on experimentation with the acceleration of academically able pupils.

Results have shown the need for proper control of acceleration to avoid undue pressure on students at too early a level. Evidence indicates that it can be a challenging experience for those students capable of accepting it. Acceleration for students, properly identified, seems to be good, if: (1) the work matches the normal social and physical maturation of the student; (2) it provides true stimulation of interest; and (3) it is part of a pattern which provides courses for the student to continue in a natural sequence of study: advanced language study for the pupil who began his French in the seventh grade, calculus for the group that began its algebra in the eighth grade, *etc.*

Enrichment is a much easier concept for schoolmen to accept. Effective enrichment of our program can be a very exciting and stimulating experience for all students, most particularly for the academically talented. At the moment we are watching with considerable interest an enrichment project in the sciences which has been widely publicized and enthusiastically supported by our own staff and students. Two series of Saturday sessions devoted to the physical and the natural sciences include lectures, demonstrations, and experiments devoted to materials beyond the scope of the regular class procedures. Attendance is limited to approximately sixty of the most able science students. Literally hundreds more applied for the privilege. In the physical science program, topics such as "Atomic Structure and Elementary Quantum Mechanics," "Spectrometric Analysis," "Nuclear Physics," "Thermodynamics," "Solid State Physics," *etc.* are included. Top scientists from laboratories and industries across the state, including a Nobel prize winner, were delighted to offer their services. This, it seems to me, is enrichment *par excellence*. The additional stimulation of interest in science has been wonderful to behold.

In the language arts field, the use of humanities films purchased by civic and parent organizations who became interested in the project has stimulated tremendous interest. Actually, this is a good example of the manner in which acceleration and enrichment frequently go hand in hand. One honors English section became so enthusiastic about its study of

Oedipus Rex that other English classes developed such interest that they were eager to share in the use of the humanities films.

New Jersey provides numerous examples of accelerated programs and countless enrichment projects. They serve to testify, as in other states, that we are offering real quality in education. The encouraging thing is that educators generally seem to recognize that good as we are, we must do even better. So, the experimentation goes on and we redouble our efforts.

For our academically talented, we are continuing to search for the flexible program that will stimulate them, challenge them, and, I would hope, provide the education that will make them the real leaders of the future in all fields. Acceleration or enrichment? They need both, as our research shows how each can be effective.

Summary of the presentation made by CLARENCE B. BREITHAUPT

CAPITOL HILL HIGH SCHOOL began its Superior and Talented School (S.T.S.) program in 1957. The students were given a series of tests to determine mental ability, achievement, aptitude, and interest. The North Central criteria for selecting the academically talented was used and, after selection, the group comprised 12 per cent of our student body. The S.T.S. group begins with a minimum IQ of 115, with achievement two or more grades above average at the time the test was administered, upper 25 per cent of total ITED score, and grade average of B or above. There are 225 potentially able students in the program.

The school is organized into four major groups; namely, special classes for mentally handicapped, those significantly below average, average to high average, and the S.T.S. group. There are instances when a student will be in one group in a particular subject matter field and in another group in another field, depending on the student's strengths and weaknesses.

Our S.T.S. program, generally speaking, is one of enrichment. Enrichment is based on the educational experiences provided for the student. These experiences are course offerings that are slightly more advanced and complex than those the individual has already known.

In our program we offer: the thematic approach in the teaching of English, a large U.S. history class by television, a class in mathematical analysis by television, two special MSG mathematics classes, a class in physics by television, a class in biology by television, and a science seminar class. A language laboratory will be installed this year.

Clarence Breithaupt is Principal of Capitol Hill Senior High School, 500 S. W. 36th Street, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. Enrollment, 1,933.

We are also providing for talents other than academic talents. Among these activities are classes in dramatics, speech, art, journalism, and vocal and instrumental music.

Methods of Teaching—A great deal of flexibility is used in teaching. We encourage teacher-pupil planning, individualized instruction, self-directed study, use of audio-visual materials (television, view graph, tape recordings, and films), a wide reading program through extensive use of school library and classroom libraries, and appropriate use of group dynamics.

HOW WE EVALUATE

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of student motivation through our program of enrichment, the top quartile (according to IQ tests results) of the 1956 class and the 1960 class were compared. The 1960 class was chosen because these students had been in the S.T.S. Program for three years.

As we had ITED results for the class of 1956 and 1960, we compared the scores made by the top quartile of each class. We found that the students in the class of 1960 had, on the average, a 10-point higher composite score than those in the 1956 class. As the mean IQ for both groups was the same (122), it would seem that the students under our program of enrichment are better motivated than were those of the more traditional classes.

OTHER MEANS OF EVALUATION INCLUDE

We have had several group meetings with S.T.S. students, parents, and guidance personnel. Parents gain insights into the progress and ability of their children, and the meetings seem to motivate the whole family of the S.T.S. student to begin thinking of college plans. Meetings of teachers who teach the gifted are held with the administrative and guidance personnel for discussion of the program in general and the students in particular. A follow-up study indicates that there has been an increase of 5 per cent in the number of graduates attending college since the program was introduced in 1957.

Summary of the presentation made by LOUIS E. ARMSTRONG

OUR program for the academically talented student is along lines of enrichment and is based on the assumptions which follow:

1. We need to quit focusing on means and start focusing on ends in our efforts to meet the needs of the academically talented.

Louis E. Armstrong is Director of Indian Springs School, Route 1, Helena, Alabama.

2. The central problem is to enlist the student's purposes, enthusiasm, and effort to stimulate, keep alive, and guide the student's intellectual curiosity.

3. Independent study is essential if we are to succeed in developing the student's intellectual curiosity.

4. Emphasis should be upon the quality of work, a "rat-race" atmosphere with frenzied activity should be avoided.

5. Emphasis should be upon learning as a creative process, learning as discovery, learning as invention, and upon learning as a process of thinking at the level of synthesis.

6. In the use of subject matter content, the purpose should be to help the student see the forest by means of the trees, more time and effort should be devoted to identifying basic principles and themes in the various subject matter fields.

7. More opportunities should be provided for students to give imaginative consideration to facts and ideas, to grasp relationships, and to see the meaning of the parts by means of the whole.

HOW USE THE LIBRARY TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION?

CHAIRMAN: *Paul Seydel*, Principal, Senior High School, Fort Dodge, Iowa

INTERROGATORS:

C. A. Bristow, Principal, High School, Maryville, Missouri

Claude E. McLain, Principal, Enseley High School, Birmingham, Alabama

Maynard C. Robinson, Principal, Senior High School, Rutland, Vermont

Summary of the presentation made by ELEANOR E. AHLERS

"**W**HATEVER form the soul-searching regarding the education of youth may take, sooner or later it has to reckon with the adequacy of the library resources in the schools. Any of the recommendations for the improvement of schools, currently receiving so much stress and attention, can be fully achieved only when the school has the full complement of library resources, personnel, and services." These are the opening sentences in *Standards for School Library Programs*, published by the American Library Association in 1960. In succeeding paragraphs, it is pointed out that educational leaders stress the school library as one of the basic

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requisites for quality education; that the program embraces teaching, guidance, and advisory services; that, if adequately provided for, the library meets the needs of all students regardless of their abilities; and that its resources are essential for the intensified science program, for the advanced placement and accelerated programs, for the development of critical thinking, for the teaching of reading and development of library skills in the education of all pupils from the lowest to the most intelligent learner, and beginning at the kindergarten level.

The school library reflects the philosophy of the school and enriches all parts of its educational program. It is a laboratory for research and serves as a stepping stone for the use of other libraries in the community. It further provides for the development of skills in its use and in reading, listening, and viewing. In a successful library program, teachers and pupils depend on its services, materials, and staff both in the library quarters and throughout the school. This is true for individual and group needs on a variety of levels and interests.

The philosophy expressed in the *Standards* is that of flexibility in its program of library services. The library should logically be the materials center in today's school and should provide a wide range of both printed and audio-visual materials. If current educational trends are to be reflected in the library, then there must be multiple reading rooms, conference rooms, individual study units, listening and viewing areas, adequate storage and work and office space, as well as space for the production of materials by students and teachers, a professional library for teachers, functional equipment, and mechanical devices. There must be an adequate and well-trained staff having special competencies (in addition to traditional library education) in curriculum, reading guidance, audio-visual materials, and newer media of communication. All of this in one librarian? Certainly not, but an extension of the professional staff to encompass these capabilities, and an extension of the clerical staff so that the professional staff is free to carry on its important work with teachers and students.

Now what is the role of the principal in the library program? Even though the most important single factor determining the success of the library program is the extent to which teachers motivate their students to use the library, the school principal must assume responsibility for the program in the following ways: work closely with the head librarian in designing the program and assist in carrying it out; encourage wide use of the library by students and teachers and provide a flexible schedule to make this use possible; plan with teachers and librarians an integrated program of library instruction; include the librarian on curriculum committees and on administrative and advisory committees; look to the librarian for leadership; and set high standards of achievement for the library staff.

In conclusion, I should like to point out that the American Association of School Librarians, a division of the ALA and since last July a depart-

ment of the NEA, has specific responsibilities for planning programs of study and service for the improvement and extension of libraries in elementary and secondary schools; for the improving of standards and establishing a criteria of evaluation; for the representation and interpretation of the need for and function of school libraries to other education and lay groups; and for the stimulation of professional growth and improvement of the status of school librarians. In this work AASL needs the direct support of administrators, especially school principals.

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT L. AMSDEN

WITHOUT doubt the most important reading matter for principals and others interested in improving school programs through better use of library is *not* this brief article. The most important reading matter is the new and sharply drawn *Standards for School Library Programs*¹ prepared by national leaders among school librarians with the criticism of an advisory committee made up of representatives of twenty different educational organizations all vitally interested in the improvement of schooling.

Now for an emphasis on three or four ideas from the "Standards" which from my experience and observations as a principal and teacher seem especially pertinent:

1. *The quality of the librarian.* The importance of the librarian—his personality, his belief in and respect for his job, and his training—cannot be over-emphasized. The most ideal facilities and the most generous budget will be wasted if the librarian is not a high quality person properly trained. This point, which should be obvious, cannot be taken for granted in a culture such as ours which historically has provided fine educational plants and equipment but which has been content to staff fine buildings, in many communities at least, with a preponderance of barely adequate personnel.

The core of superior librarianship is the knowledge of books and other materials, knowledge of when and how to use them, and knowledge in how to stimulate others to do so too. The librarian must be a warm, friendly, extroverted person who works to a large extent among staff members as a kind of supervisor or helping teacher. The modern librarian is "out in the school" at least half as much time as he is helping pupils and teachers in the library and working at conventional library tasks. He attends department meetings and works with committees revising old courses or developing new units. He works with the teachers in

¹ *Standards for School Library Programs*. Chicago: American Library Association. 1960.

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classes; he works with pupil committees on special assignments and reports. He sets up bibliographies, reserve shelves; he serves as a liaison with the public libraries in his district so that all pertinent materials for various areas of study are located and fairly distributed through public as well as school library.

The librarian spends much time with teachers new to the school. He helps them become familiar with the many materials and services of the library including audio-visual items, unless there is a separate audio-visual department. He aids the department head in showing the new teacher how to use the many hundreds of materials and services to improve teaching and learning.

The librarian keeps the library rooms attractive and interesting centers. Displays in the library proper and in various corridor cases stimulate pupils and teachers to think and act in desirable directions. He keeps his faculty in touch with new ideas in professional literature, promising experimental work, new or projected books and other materials including audio-visual items. His circularizing of faculty with lists and description of newly received materials and his request to faculty for suggestions for purchases in specific areas stimulate teachers and bring them into closer library relationships. All of the foregoing help improve instruction and hence help boys and girls.

To pupils the library should be the real center of their school, a quiet place but none-the-less a lively, interesting, and warm place where a boy or girl is always welcome. To pupils the librarian is or should be a good friend, knowledgeable and full of interesting and helpful suggestions.

2. *Responsibilities of principals, supervisors, and teachers for improved teaching and learning through greater involvement of library.* If the old-fashioned stereotype of the librarian is no longer accurate, neither are principal-supervisor-teacher stereotypes as they relate to library. The alert principal sees to it that both current and capital items in budget are adequate for the expanding library role in secondary education. By 1965 all high schools which consider themselves either "good" or "superior" should have met both the quantitative and qualitative levels outlined in *Standards for School Library Programs*. There will be enough books, pamphlets, graphic materials, recording and visual items to permit really superior teaching. The library program will have enough floor space. The librarian will be given enough clerical workers so that he will no longer use his time for non-professional or semi-professional tasks. The principal will not schedule the library as a study hall and he will secure a large enough library staff to permit librarians to function in other departments or class areas as consultants, aides to instructors, etc. The head librarian will be given department head or counselor status.

Supervisors and teachers will meet with their own librarian (and in large schools librarians will tend to divide up the subject matter departments) at regular intervals. A bibliography will be developed for every

feasible unit of work. New materials will be made available for pupils and teachers. The librarian will be expected to attend many department meetings. Consulting with the librarian will be routine for teachers in preparation of course units.

Teachers and supervisors will play an active role in library buying. The library will be host to many class and sub-class groups. Through English and social studies library assignments, every needed high-school and college library skill will be taught, and we know from research just what these skills are. Needed pupil attitudes toward library should develop nationally as in their work library utilization steadily increases.

3. *Conclusion.* Implicit in all the foregoing is the firm conviction that really superior teaching cannot be done in most departments without full involvement of the library. Extensive use of books, records, and other visual and auditory materials by both pupils and teachers with the active help of a trained consultant marks one important difference between "average" and "good" and between "good" and "excellent."

Summary of the presentation made by FRANK N. PHILPOT

AS LEADER of an educational enterprise, the administrator has a large responsibility for developing the library. His leadership will in no small measure determine whether or not a vital philosophy of education permeates all aspects of the enterprise. He should regard his work with and support of the library not only as a duty and an obligation, but also as an opportunity for vitalizing the entire educational program of the school.

The principal's first responsibility is simply to see that an adequate library is provided, that funds are appropriated for its support, and that the librarian knows at all times what funds are available in the budget. In order to accomplish this, he must see that the library has the support of the board of education and of the public. In other words, the school library can well take a prominent place in the school's public relations program.

It is the opportunity and duty of the administration to see that the librarian is provided with sufficient clerical help in order that all possible routine duties may be delegated to assistants or clerks and the librarians can be free to induce students to seek knowledge or to read for pleasure.

It should be the administrator's chief concern to see that a spirit of cooperation and mutual helpfulness exists between the library staff and the faculty. The library staff should bend every effort to provide miscel-

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laneous instructional materials, such as magazines, pictures, pamphlets, clippings, audio-visual materials, displays, reserve book lists, bibliographies, or whatever will make a unit of study more interesting and a teacher's work easier. Teachers should not have to spend hours searching for material and references needed. Teachers, in turn, should cooperate by appreciating the services offered them by giving ample advance notice of assignments or requests for materials and by jointly teaching library lessons of all kinds.

The principal's public word of appreciation for such cooperation may do much toward keeping someone's yeoman service from being taken for granted and thus insure that the service will be repeated.

The most important consideration is the philosophy of the administration of the library. Everyone concerned with the financing and operation of the library should agree as to the importance of the library in the over-all scheme of the operation of the school and whether or not books are to be collected and stored or used. All things hinge upon the answer to these two questions. For example, in the allocation of funds, where does the library rank in importance?

Some of you may have difficulty in obtaining an adequate number of trained librarians. With the philosophy that the library is of paramount importance, any administrator may start with whatever arrangement he has and constantly strive to improve it.

I would like to leave a few other questions with you. Is the "master of ceremonies" in the library to be a librarian or a keeper of a study hall? How shall children be taught proper use, care, and respect of books? To what extent shall children have free access to the stacks and to reference materials, to say nothing of browsing materials? Does the librarian have time and opportunity to plan with the faculty? It has been said that an educated man is not one who knows many facts but one who knows where he can find them. According to that standard, how well are your graduates educated?

PERSISTING PROBLEMS IN NATIONAL CONTESTS AND ACTIVITIES

CHAIRMAN: *Albert Willis*, Executive Secretary, Illinois High School Association, Chicago, Illinois; Chairman, Committee on National Contests and Activities, NASSP

PANEL:

Roland J. Lehker, Executive Secretary, Michigan Association of Secondary-School Principals, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

Charles H. Downs, Principal, High School, Arlington, Massachusetts

J. H. Duncan, Principal, Byrd High School, Shreveport, Louisiana

W. G. Eismon, Executive Secretary, West Virginia Secondary School Activities Commission, Charles Town, West Virginia

George R. Perry, Principal, Eastern High School, Bristol, Connecticut

Raymond S. Locke, Principal, High School, Barrington, Rhode Island

Summary of the presentation made by **ROLAND J. LEHKER**

FOR thirty years, state and national groups have attempted to bring contests and activities in high schools into proper focus. Although the regulation of athletic activities has been conducted by the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations, the regulation of non-athletic activities is not firmly established. This does not mean, however, that progress has not been made in the control of such activities. Much progress has been made toward selecting contests and activities which contribute to the educational welfare of students. This progress is indicated by the cooperation now existing between sponsoring agencies and the contests and activities committees (both state and national), the reduction in the number of national contests, the reduction in the number of essay contests, and the application of the national criteria to insure wholesome contests and activities.

A large number of problems still persist. The problems in fact have been compounded as these committees have become effective. As contests have been rejected and schools denied participation in certain activities, pressures have been brought to bear by lay and school groups. It is necessary to look at the progress which has been made in order to discover which continuing problems should be attacked.

1. Contest and activity committees generally have a reputation for acting as limiting and inhibiting agencies. However, educators today

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feel that much education takes place outside the classroom, that various forms of motivation should be used and that many devices and techniques should be used to interest students. How can contest and activities committees *encourage* the use of contests and activities to motivate and interest students?

2. Contest and activities committees favor the reduction or elimination of essay contests. Is there not some value in these activities as a motivational device? How are essays different from other forms of "creative writing"? How can "creative activities" be evaluated? Are examinations a proper substitute for "creative writing"?

3. At present the rulings of the contest and activities committee are "voluntarily" followed except in certain accredited schools. Should there be an enforcing agency? What should be the relationship of contest and activity committees to the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations?

4. There is a tendency for some principals to consider contest and activities committees as a "whipping boy." How can principals work more closely with these committees? Would it be valuable for schools to have committees consider contests and activities rather than having forceful, ambitious, persuasive teachers make decisions in their fields without regard for the over-all school program? Perhaps contest and activities committees within a school or school district are needed to operate within the framework of the state and national body.

5. Colleges and universities have greatly increased the activities which they provide for high-school students. How can these be effectively controlled, coordinated, and used?

6. At present the distance traveled by students is often limited by contest and activities committees. Out-of-state travel is generally discouraged. With modern means of transportation, are these restrictions realistic? If "travel is broadening," should it be encouraged if proper protection is guaranteed for classroom work?

This list of six problem areas indicates that not all of the problems have been solved. Perhaps one of our greatest needs is to share information among states so that all may profit from the gains which have been made by each. Our goal should be not only to regulate and control activities to protect students from exploitation, but also to use outside sources in the community and nation to further educational development.

Summary of the presentation made by CHARLES H. DOWNS

BASED on the past three years it could be stated that pressures on schools in regard to national contests and activities are in control to some extent. This statement is based on the approved lists of National Contests and Activities issued by the Committee on National Contests and Activities of the NASSP for 1958-59, 1959-60, and 1960-61. A recapitulation of the various categories listed give the following results:

	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
Agriculture contests	3	0	0
Art contests	6	6	6
Editorial and writing contests	9	8	8
Exams and scholarships	22	21	21
Home ec. and ind. arts	4	4	3
Speech contests	6	6	6
Miscellaneous	6	6	6
National activities (not contests)	14	21	20
TOTAL	70	72	70

These figures would show a definite situation of stability at least. However, the fact remains that there is a total of 70 approved contests or activities for 1960-61 which is the same total for 1958-59.

The encouraging fact of the 1960-61 total is that it overcame the jump to 72 for the 1959-60 listing and could possibly mean that the NASSP Committee on National Contests and Activities will continue to reduce the totals in ensuing years.

This report is ignoring any state or regional contest but would like to insert the idea that the desk of the average principal is deluged with local, state, and regional announcements of contests and activities over and beyond those of national scope. Accordingly, the blessings of all principals would be directed to the National Committee for any efforts to reduce radically the national listings.

This discussant heartily approves the recommendation by the National Committee under the heading of "Policy for all Secondary Schools"; namely: "That all secondary schools take a firm and consistent position against participating in unapproved national contests or activities." That action is obviously in process on the part of the National Committee is evidenced by a report given by Ellsworth Tompkins, in July 1959, at the National Federation Annual Meeting held at Lookout Mountain, Tennessee. This report highlighted the problems, especially with essay contests, duplication of contests, sub-contests under one sponsorship and the

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pursuance by the Committee of sufficient information to determine the reliability of the sponsor. Furthermore, it would seem that the greatest increase promised at that time and demonstrated by the figures submitted above shows that there has been a great increase in National Activities such as conventions, conferences, *etc.*, which do not give prizes or awards. The greatest difficulty in this particular category is the question of released time from school days.

This discussant believes that the policy of annual listings which implies that an approved activity is for only one year serves as an excellent possibility for tight controls and steady reduction. As has been intimated previously, contests and activities on the local, state, and regional areas in my part of the country are not in as well-organized control as those on the national level. It is the belief of this discussant, therefore, that the progress made on the national level should be copied on the local levels.

Summary of the presentation made by J. H. DUNCAN

THE principals and teachers of the secondary schools of Louisiana appreciate the fact that the National Association of Secondary-School Principals reviews the many national contests and activities and makes specific recommendations concerning them. To have a united stand either for or against a given contest or activity is a definite and comforting service. The Association's recommendations have greatly reduced the pressure on all principals. However, pressure continues to be exerted by contests or activities that are not national in scope.

We do not have a state-wide organization in Louisiana that governs school activities other than athletics. Consequently, each school system must provide its own method of control. It is my purpose here to give a brief account of the strategy adopted by the school system in which I am employed. (With three exceptions, all public schools in Louisiana operate under a parish [county] system.)

Any outside group or organization that wishes to place a program or activity in the school system must follow a definite procedure.

1. It must appear before an Educational Council composed of seven elementary-school teachers, seven junior and senior high-school teachers, two elementary-school principals, one junior high-school principal, one senior high-school principal, one rural-school principal, and two members of the central office staff. The sponsoring organization must explain the program to the committee and answer any question the school personnel might wish to ask. The committee, in executive session, either approves or disapproves the program. In evaluating these applications, this Educational Council employs standards similar to those used by the National Association of Secondary-School principals.

J. H. Duncan is Principal of the C. E. Byrd High School, Shreveport, Louisiana. Enrollment, 1,900.

2. If the above mentioned committee gives its approval, then the sponsoring organization must repeat the same procedure before the school board. If the school board gives its approval, then the sponsors of the program may contact the principals of the schools. Needless to say, many sponsors of "fly-by-night" contests and activities drop their interest in the schools upon being notified of this required procedure.

At first glance one would think that this completely ties the hands of the principal in the operation of his school. Such is not the case. The principal has the right to accept or reject any approved contest or activity as far as individual school is concerned. Also, note that this procedure applies only to those requests that originate *outside* of the school. We find that this policy supplements quite well the policy of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

During the past year, the Caddo Parish School Board took two steps to strengthen this policy. The first step prohibits the handing out of questionnaires to pupils at school without the approval of the school board. The second step was taken after the problem had been studied for a year by classroom teachers, principals, members of the central office staff, and school board members. Following their recommendations, drives for membership and for money, as well as many other activities, were eliminated from the school day.

In summary, the united strength of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals acting as a bulwark against national pressures on schools is invaluable. Speaking for the state of Louisiana, permit me to say again that the principals and teachers are grateful for the leadership of this organization. Both national and local school groups must continue their vigilance against encroachments and provide the necessary means of control. The school day must be devoted to academic achievement.

Summary of the presentation made by W. G. EISMON

THE real objectives of an activities program are:

1. To stress the cultural values, the appreciations, and skills involved in all interscholastic activities, and to promote cooperation and friendship
2. To limit interscholastic programs as to both character and quantity to such activities and such events as may reasonably be expected to promote the generally accepted objectives of secondary education, and as shall not unduly interfere with nor abridge the regular program of teachers and students in the performance of their regular day-to-day school duties

W. G. Eismon is Executive Secretary of the West Virginia Secondary-School Activities Commission, Charles Town, West Virginia.

3. To encourage economy in the time that student and the teacher personnel devote to interscholastic activities
4. To encourage economy in expenses to interscholastic activities
5. And, to discourage long trips for large groups of students.

If these objectives are to be met, careful planning on the part of school officials should be made and the state activities commission should do all in its power to protect pupils and schools from placing too much stress on the so called, co-curricular program by the school under its supervision.

Each year the secondary schools of the United States are requested and urged to participate in every conceivable type of contest or activity imaginable. Needless to say the real control of such contests and activities rests with the principal of the school. However, much help and guidance can be provided by the state office providing school officials are willing to cooperate. Schools should be permitted to participate only in those activities approved by the state activities association.

In many states a list of approved activities and contests are placed in the hands of the principal at the beginning of the school term each year by the commission. Schools are asked to refrain from participating in activities that are not on this approved list and, in many cases, failure to abide by the rules and regulations lead to disciplinary measures. While this is perhaps the most undesirable way to keep schools from participating in non-approved activities, it is, no doubt, the most forceful.

Since the educational program of a good secondary school gives pupils enough work to keep them busy, a limited number of approved contests and activities approved by the State Activities Commission is most desirable. As a result, an activity should supplement the regular school program of those students participating. Schools should refrain from permitting pupils to participate in any essay contest because of educational value derived from such activity. If that be true, why should an essay contest be approved by the state association or the Committee on National Contests and Activities?

Certainly other precautions should be taken in approving contests or activities that have undesirable features. Contests should be rejected which require the participating students to pay entrance fees, and those that involve excessive travel for large groups of students should be discouraged. Many state associations are unalterably opposed to those activities or projects requiring fees from students and reject them without hesitation.

State associations are certainly in their right rejecting those contests which are designed to benefit the promoter more than the participating student as well as those motivated primarily by monetary appeal.

In formulating a list of approved contests and activities for member schools, a state activities commission should sanction or approve only those events which: (1) meet standards, (2) which take little or no school time, and (3) which do not exploit pupils.

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE R. PERRY

THE Connecticut's Secondary-School Principals' Association has a Board of Control for Interschool Activities. It operates on the state level much as does NASSP's national committee, using criteria which are similar to those of NASSP. It is, perhaps, less lenient in some respects; for example, it is less willing to approve activities which take place on Sunday or which cause a loss of school time.

After drawing up an annual master list of approved activities, the state committee confers monthly and issues its report by sending a postal card to each high-school principal. This monthly mimeographed card lists as "approved" or "not approved" any contests or activities which have been brought to the attention of the committee during the preceding four weeks.

Out of loyalty to NASSP, this group of Connecticut principals endorses automatically all national contests and activities on the NASSP approved list, though sometimes with tongue in cheek. Local dissatisfaction, for example, has been experienced with such nationally approved contests as the National Red Cherry Institute's Pie Baking Contest, the D.A.R. Good Citizen Award, and the Junior Chamber of Commerce script writing contest on the theme, "My True Security."

There has been a great increase lately in the number of events scheduled in school time. Some of these are Model Congresses or Open Houses run by colleges; some are conventions of organizations. Influenced by the state activities committee, most sponsors have re-scheduled their events to late afternoon and evening or to Saturdays.

More resistance has been experienced from such organizations of teachers as those which sponsor the Scholastic Press, Federation of Student Councils, and the All-State Music Festivals. A rather reluctant cooperation has been secured from the sponsors of the Distributive Education Clubs, the Future Farmers of America, and the Future Homemakers of America. Gradually, however, these organizations have been persuaded to set their meetings so that little or no school time is lost.

Of concern to Connecticut's committee, however, are the national conventions, approved by NASSP, which meet in school time. These are the conventions of the Future Farmers of America, Future Business Leaders of America, Music Educators' National Conference, and the Williamsburg Student Burgesses, to name a few. Connecticut principals cannot understand why these cannot be held in the summer vacation. Some principals, moreover, question the justification of national conventions anyway.

George R. Perry is Principal of Bristol Eastern High School, Bristol, Connecticut. Enrollment, 1,406.

Fully half of the activities which come before the Connecticut Board of Control are not found on the national list. Did they apply, only to be turned down, or have they never made application to NASSP? If the latter is the case, and the contest has originated since the most recent meeting of the national committee, it may be that a worth-while contest is being penalized by the necessary delay until the following May. This may not be important. However, this state's committee occasionally gives tentative approval, pending the next meeting of the NASSP committee. Of great help to the state committee would be an annual list of those contests and activities which have been rejected by NASSP.

Much attention has been devoted to local radio and television programs involving youth. These take various forms, and have varying degrees of merit. Turned down have been competitions between teams, along the line of the College Quiz Bowl. Most programs of the "Bandstand" type are blacklisted. Most objectionable feature is the identification of individuals as representatives of X High School. Too often the pupil is an unsavory-looking character who is an unfortunate choice as a symbol of the typical student of X High School. At least one station manager has cooperated by eliminating all school identifications.

Perhaps a more serious objection to this type of program is the exploitation of youth to sell a product. Seldom are these run as sustaining programs, and there is the ever-present danger of unhealthy commercialism.

Very often the contest or activity requires considerable travel. This is usually true of debate tournaments, speaking contests, musical auditions, cheerleading clinics, *etc.* The state committee insists that all such travel be chaperoned by teachers and in adequately insured vehicles. It strongly deprecates the use of student drivers at any time.

Connecticut's Board of Control has experienced many pressures, of varying severity, from those who do not like to be balked. A few are selfish promoters more interested in propaganda or in selling a product than in the welfare of teenagers. Many who protest are well-meaning sponsors, often teachers, who deprecate the importance of certain items in the list of criteria.

The strength of this supervising body has brought comfort to harassed principals. It has relieved them of the occasional embarrassment in having to refuse their constituents permission to participate in an activity that the administration felt to be unwholesome. It has removed the pressures exerted by townspeople, teachers, and students and substituted the authoritative voice of the state association's Board of Control. In other words, it has taken the principal "off the hook!"

Summary of the presentation made by RAYMOND S. LOCKE

THE secondary school is continually being called upon by individuals and organizations to offer activities which to many seem of more value to the sponsor than the student. It is a primary function of the NASSP committee to keep the school's educational aims and such secondary activities, as they may be called upon to perform, in the proper educational perspective.

The committee on contests and activities is made up of six secondary-school administrators who meet annually to consider applications to be approved for the coming year of contests and activities involving more than five states. All of the above are approved on a one-year basis. The purpose of the committee is to study carefully all requests and, after thorough consideration, establish an approved list to serve as a guide for you to follow. The placing of an activity on the list does not mean that you are obligated to participate. The approved list gives you a reasonable argument against involving your students in those activities not approved by the committee.

Over the past several years the committee has developed policies which provide the opportunity for student participation under proper school control. Several of the policies are:

1. The consideration of an activity only when the proper application forms, as supplied by the national office, is submitted in full.
2. The curtailing of further essay contests. This type of a contest is difficult to judge, often becomes an administrative burden, involves teachers' time, and has on numerous occasions promoted plagiarism.
3. Strongly recommend the competitive examination as a method of selecting outstanding students.
4. The urging of sponsors to increase the amount to be realized by the winners.
5. Whenever possible, the committee has discouraged the giving of cash awards, emphasizing the increased need of scholarship assistance to be paid directly to the college. Further offering the services of the National Association to administer scholarship funds.
6. Minimizing the number of activities which take students away from school when it is in session.
7. Due to the need of adequate supervision when students are at a large convention, the committee discourages any group of more than fifty participants assembling for a national awards gathering.
8. The inviting of the sponsoring agency to meet with the committee. This has been adopted for all new requests for approval. Each year the committee meets with representatives who request to bring to the committee anticipated changes, receive suggestions for a better program, etc.

Raymond S. Locke is Principal of Barrington Senior High School, Lincoln Avenue, Barrington, Rhode Island. Enrollment, 540.

In the vast majority of cases, sponsoring agencies are enthusiastic in their desire to assist our youth and are most receptive to the committee's suggestions. As an administrator, you can greatly assist in the work of the committee through your cooperation with those who sponsor the approved activities, apprising the committee of any variance from correct procedure, and alerting the national office of any individual or organization who seeks to impose demands upon your school.

DEVELOPING TOMORROW'S LEADERS TODAY THROUGH THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

CHAIRMAN: *Howard F. Horner*, Principal, David Douglas High School, Portland, Oregon

INTERROGATORS:

Leslie M. Evans, Principal, Central High School, Columbus, Ohio

George E. Miller, Principal, Senior High School, North Little Rock, Arkansas

W. Eugene Smith, Principal, High School, Orangeburg, South Carolina

Summary of the presentation made by **FRANK A. PEAKE**

THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY SCHOLARSHIP PROGRAM

THE National Honor Society stands unique among the organizations in the secondary schools in that it has not varied from its purpose since its establishment in 1921. The purpose of the National Honor Society as stated in Section II of Article I in the Constitution is, "The purpose of this organization shall be to create an enthusiasm for scholarship, to stimulate a desire to render service, to promote leadership, and to develop character in the students in the secondary schools of the United States."

For a number of years, scholarship was in disrepute and mediocrity seemed to hold the upper hand. In the face of this heavy barrage of public opinion among school people, the National Honor Society has stood firm and has insisted on selecting and honoring those in our high schools who stood out from among the crowd and proclaimed high ideals and true scholarship.

When the tide changed and there was once again an insistence on scholarship in our schools, those principals who had chapters of the National Honor Society were in an enviable position in that they had an organization established and functioning within their schools through which they could promote and encourage this changed procedure. This

Frank A. Peake is Principal of Shades Valley High School, Birmingham, Alabama; Chairman of National Honor Society Scholarship Board, NASSP.

condition made it possible for our Association's secretary for student services to make the following statement, "Principals of secondary and junior high schools are using the Honor Societies to promote scholastic achievement and to encourage greater educational development of students." It is natural for an organization which promotes scholastic achievement and which encourages greater educational development to take steps of a realistic nature to carry out these ideals. It is for this reason that the officials of our Society early in its history established a scholarship program which would in a practical way encourage the members of the National Honor Society to further their formal education beyond the limits of high school. This program met with success from the beginning and today is a potent factor throughout our nation in encouraging our qualified young people to pursue further their educational development.

The National Honor Society somewhat led the way in the field of securing donations from individuals and industries to be placed at the disposal of our young people for the furtherance of their education. It was found by our former Executive Secretary, Dr. Paul E. Elicker, that there were a number of industries and business concerns that were anxious to use their accumulated income for the benefit of the young people of this nation. They were looking for the proper outlet and for the organization which had the "know-how" to administer such funds and to find those students who were most likely to succeed if given an opportunity.

Through this process, the scholarship program of the National Honor Society was established. It had a small beginning, but it has grown consistently and rapidly until in 1960 a total of \$34,000 was provided for scholarships and awards through our organization. This amount was distributed among 63 separate individuals with scholarships and awards ranging from \$100 to \$4,000. In addition to the actual money scholarships last year, 120 Honorary Scholarships and 294 Certificates of Merit were presented to deserving young people in the high schools. This year (May 1961) 63 scholarship winners will receive \$37,500. In this way our National Honor Society has been encouraging scholarship and college attendance and has been bringing to the attention of the colleges those highly capable young people who should pursue their educational activities beyond high school.

In addition to the actual scholarships given by the National Honor Society, many other scholarship funds for local and national business organizations are being administered by our Association. It is a complement to our Executive Secretary and our Association to be approached by these business concerns with requests to pick their scholars and administer their funds. It shows a high degree of confidence in the work that this organization is doing.

The National Honor Society Scholarship Program is administered by a scholarship board composed of four school men and the Executive Secretary of the Association. It is a very select program and students are

chosen on the basis of their performance on the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) which is followed by a General Aptitude Test (GAT). The scores on these two tests are considered along with the grades the students have made during their high-school period, the recommendation of their school, their participation in the program of the school outside of class work, and their need. Through this program of careful selection, the work of the Scholarship Board has been most rewarding.

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE W. JANKE

UTILIZING THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY IN IMPROVING THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

THIS topic has a broad meaning, involving not only the school's academic program, but all character building aspects of the school as well. Members of the National Honor Society are chosen because of their scholastic rank, leadership ability, character, and their willingness to be of service to the school. Students of high academic ability strive for membership in the organization and parents are anxious that their children gain such recognition.

The National Honor Society generates a desire for high scholarship within the ranks of the academically talented, and these students who are superior academically should not be permitted to hide their light under a basket. Some junior high schools have a chapter of the Junior National Honor Society. Such an organization enlightens the student at an early age on the four objectives of the Society and kindles his desire to be further recognized on the senior high-school level, although that recognition cannot be promised.

Induction ceremonies in our school are conducted once each year. If a Society alumnus is secured as a speaker, he can effectively direct his remarks toward the four objectives of the organization. However, any speaker knowing the school's philosophy can perform a good service. A reporter for the daily newspaper is in attendance and takes a picture of the members which appears in the evening paper with a write-up of the program. The school paper and yearbook have similar coverage. Membership in the organization becomes a part of the student's permanent record. Evidence of disappointment by students at not being elected to membership indicates the prestige the organization holds.

One of the groups to be invited as platform guests this year at one of our assembly programs will be the National Honor Society.

Just how a chapter is utilized by the school depends on such factors as size of school, effectiveness of the student council, club organizations,

George W. Janke is Principal of Mitchell High School, South Dakota. Enrollment, 430.

home-room plan, *etc.* Many projects are being sponsored by the National Honor Society in some schools. If certain groups have been the project leaders, it might be well for the National Honor Society to be of service to the school in some other way.

The National Honor Society in our school does not, as an organization, assume the sponsoring of projects, but its individual members work with organizations that do assume such projects, and the members are leaders in the many organizations in the school. National Honor Society members are working side by side with those who are not members, and their influence as superior students is far reaching.

Our members meet as a Student Advisory Committee with the principal to discuss ways of realizing for all students the objectives of the Society. No attempt is made to interfere with the work being done or projects undertaken by various groups, but merely to act as an unofficial grass-roots group serving without credit or glory for the benefit of the individual student and the school.

Such topics as the following can be discussed: How To Study, How Can College Day Activities Be Improved, Can Students Be Laboratory Assistants, Amount of Time To Be Allowed for Make-up After an Absence, and Types of Editorials for the School Paper. Recommendations are then referred to other groups or individuals for further study.

The increase in the number of chapters of the National Honor Society since its beginning in 1921 is very gratifying. The American public expects only the best of its schools. It expects the upper scholastic group to be challenged to do its best. The National Honor Society is one group that can help in extending that challenge.

Summary of the presentation made by C. H. ORTT

THE ROLE OF THE STATE ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY PROGRAM

THE State Principal's Association must recognize the student activities sponsored by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals as projects to be supported by individual state organizations. In order that the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society programs be ready in our secondary schools to render valuable assistance to the outstanding students in our schools, the State Secondary-School Principal's Association must assume positive responsibility. Necessary leadership needs be available to assist, such as an active, energetic person to assume the responsibilities of coordinating the projects and activities of the National Honor Society Chapters. An interested committee of prin-

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cipals should be appointed to assist the coordinator in setting up district and state conventions; help chapter sponsors to get the spirit of the National Honor Society; present, regularly, information about the National Honor Society at meetings of the State Association of Secondary-School Principals; and urge all principals to set up chapters in their schools.

It would be desirable for publicity about the projects and activities of the National Honor Society to be included in the State Association's news letter. Principals should be urged to promote scholarship through the National Honor Society chapters, to exchange ideas among schools, and to help establish new chapters in neighboring schools.

The state coordinator and committee must keep in touch with the National Headquarters for recent information. An up-to-date list of inactive chapters can be secured from National Headquarters and steps to reactivate them should be taken. When new chapters have been established, a congratulatory letter from the State Secondary-Principal's Association is in order.

The Secondary-Principal's Association could explore the possibility of setting up State National Honor Society Scholarships and the need for encouraging the National Honor Society Scholarship Program and for becoming well acquainted with the application procedures and testing for participating in the Scholarship Program.

A prominent place for the projects and activities of the National Honor Society on the annual convention program of the State Principal's Association needs to be provided.

The state coordinator and committee should provide a clearing house service for all chapters in the state. It is recommended that, when outstanding programs or projects are found, publicity be encouraged in the National Association publications.

State committees should organize into Area Councils of near-by or geographically located states. These area councils should hold bi-annual conferences where representatives can meet and exchange ideas. In some states where the program of the National Honor Society needs help, an area council would add strength and encouragement. Such an organization would provide county superintendents with information pertaining to the operations and merits of the National Honor Society and encourage the development of new National Honor Society chapters. State superintendents and educators can be encouraged not to lend their names and prestige to student organizations which are not under the direct supervision of a regional, state, or national association of professional educators.

If the National Honor Society programs are to be successful and fulfill their designated purpose in the total school program, then the secondary-school principals must learn more about the work of the National Honor Society and offer their support and guidance. The talented youth in our schools deserve the attention they have earned by their outstanding scholarship. Participation in the National Honor Society is certainly one way through which they can be rewarded.

HOW MODIFY THE CURRICULUM TO BENEFIT THE ACADEMICALLY TALENTED STUDENT?

CHAIRMAN: *George D. Lange*, Principal, M. S. Hershey Junior-Senior High School, Hershey, Pennsylvania

INTERROGATORS:

Robert V. Cogger, Principal, Memorial High School, Elmont, New York
Ernest A. Finney, Principal, Whittemore High School, Conway, South Carolina

Richard D. Van Pelt, Director of Secondary Education, College of Idaho, Caldwell, Idaho

Summary of the presentation made by LESTER W. ANDERSON

DURING the past two to three years, the literature has been filled with suggestions that the secondary-school curriculum must "do something" for the academically talented student. Some high-school principals have "gotten on the band wagon" by launching various special provisions without always analyzing why such plans are necessary or what factors affecting curriculum are functioning with respect to this problem. It is the purpose of this discussion, therefore, to identify some of the current factors relating to curriculum development which have implications for educating the academically talented student.

1. Basic to curriculum development in a democracy is the desire by society to provide equal educational opportunity for all children. However, it is important that curriculum builders realize that equality of educational opportunity does *not* mean identical education for all youth. Rather, increasing efforts are being made in schools to implement the long established principle that the learning experiences should be different and unique, depending upon the peculiar abilities and interests of the individual pupil. Certainly there is nothing democratic about neglecting the specific needs of the academically talented child.

2. There is an increasing wave of concern for the "needs of society" as well as the "needs of youth." Since Sputnik I, there has been a dramatic realization that we cannot afford to waste brain power. It is apparent also that there is likely to be no oversupply of talent. It is imperative for the "needs of society," possibly even for national survival, that we conserve and develop our human resources to the maximum.

During the 1940's and 50's, schools were guided, to a great extent, by the objectives inherent in the statement of the Ten Imperative Needs of Youth. There is no intent here to suggest that such objectives, which emphasize the individual's needs, are no longer appropriate to guide

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builders of curriculum. It is implied, however, that present conditions require greater sensitivity to "needs of society" parallel to the "needs of youth."

3. There has been a growing acceptance of the practice of grouping pupils according to ability, purpose and/or such other factors related to differentiation of instruction. The old cliché, "grouping is undemocratic," no longer dictates instructional practices.

4. There appears to be an increasing commitment to district reorganization. Such activity, plus the rapid increase in relatively large suburban high schools, is resulting in secondary schools of sufficient size to provide greater diversity of offerings, better services to students, and greater experimentation in meeting the needs of academically talented students.

5. Financial support provided in the National Defense Education Act is making it possible to upgrade guidance and counseling services considerably in our high schools. As both the quality and quantity of guidance and counseling services are improved, there should be more intelligent and skillful adaptations made in the curriculum based on the specific needs of individuals, including the needs of academically talented students.

6. Psychologically, it has become much more acceptable for a high-school student to be a "brain." Special programs such as the recently developed (1955) National Merit Scholarship Program, the Advanced Placement Program, the North Central Association's Project for the Motivation of Superior and Talented Students, the expanded use of examinations for admission to college, and other similar programs have helped in focusing attention on the desirability of recognizing academic achievement as a desirable goal. Although there are some hazards in terms of curriculum development based on special testing programs, it must be recognized that these programs have affected the psychological atmosphere of the high school, because all such programs have as a major objective the elevation of scholarship and the recognition that high scholastic achievement is an attribute worth developing.

No doubt there are other factors and conditions which could be identified as making a major contribution in the area of modifying the curriculum to benefit the academically talented student. This discussion is not intended as an all-inclusive listing of these developments. However, the above factors do support the general conclusion that *the conditions of the times demand a curriculum which provides maximum opportunity for academically talented students*. High-school principals must be aware of these developments and provide adequate leadership to their faculties in developing appropriate curriculum content and practices for the education of this group of students.

Summary of the presentation made by J. E. FERGASON

OUR founding fathers, it may be assumed, never intended the Declaration of Independence to read that all men are created intellectually equal, and yet the massive structure of public education appears built on just that appalling error of thought. The inferior student suffers more severely than the gifted one from this mixing in a kind of intellectual melting pot. The gifted student is stifled and bored, but the slow learner is likely to be forced into retreat from life by the cruelty of impossible competition. Therefore, as educators we must devise some method to teach, in our schools, both the gifted and the inferior. This writer believes that the curriculum must be modified tremendously for the gifted pupils.

Provisions for the discovery of the gifted and talented youth must be accomplished early in junior high school. Then plans for their maximum development should be carried forth in the curriculum planning. To accomplish these things, special programs must be adopted. Differentiation of materials and methods of instruction should follow; otherwise, grouping of any kind is useless. It should be noted here that there is no special motivation built into a gifted class. Motivation and purpose still are developed by good teaching.

We modify our curriculum requirements to the extent that we permit a pupil to take five solids and physical education in the first year of high school. Pupils are grouped in foreign language, algebra, and English.

Talented youth are also identified and grouped in our seventh and eighth grades. However, this is more difficult in these grades as we run a schedule of block programs. Generally, pupils are together most of the day in these blocks. We identify these special gifted rooms as "Experimental Groups."

The author has had the good fortune of having discovered a method of teaching some gifted pupils in a "Special Experimental Class." Eight highly talented pupils were chosen from each of the three grades in our school. These pupils have been making their own curriculum to the extent that they are choosing the subjects to be studied. This "Special Class" meets once or twice a week. The pupils are drawn from their regular classes to participate in this program. All of the work missed must be made up with the teacher of their regular classes. We have not had sufficient funds to pay people to come to our school to teach this "Special Class"; therefore, we have been scheduling "volunteer" people from our city. Fortunately we can draw on people to teach journalism, French, German, and citizenship, to name a few of the areas. We are getting outstanding recognition in our community on this project.

We have modified our curriculum recently to include biology, speech, algebra also in our ninth grade. General Science and Algebra I are to

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be given in the eighth grade. The aforementioned practices are very common in the junior high schools in this area.

In summary it may be said that: (1) the first problem to be solved in directing our attention to the gifted student is to identify properly or discover him and (2) the second problem is that of providing an enriched educational curriculum for him. The author believes that an enriched curriculum is the answer over an accelerated curriculum.

Summary of the presentation made by STEWART B. ATKINSON

THE subject matter of this paper consists of a description of how the curriculum of one senior high school has been modified to benefit (it hopes) its academically talented students. Darien High School is a public high school, thirty-seven miles from New York City. The majority of the graduates of the high school enter some sort of post-high-school educational institutions (70% college, 10% other educational institutions).

The curriculum adjustments made in this high school with the academically talented student in mind are described as follows:

MATHEMATICS

Prior to 1955 the program in mathematics was as follows: grade 10, Algebra II; grade 11, Plane Geometry; and grade 12, Solid Geometry ($\frac{1}{2}$) and Trigonometry ($\frac{1}{2}$). On the assumption that the brightest students were wasting considerable time under this program and were, in addition, not going far enough in the field of mathematics for the advanced sections, we cut in half the time assigned to all senior high-school courses in mathematics, and eventually added calculus in grade 12. The new program in mathematics for the bright students became: grade 9 (JHS) for Algebra I; grade 10, Intermediate Algebra for one-half year and Plane Geometry for one-half year; grade 11, Solid Geometry and Trigonometry one-fourth year each and Probability and Statistics for one-half year; and grade 12, Calculus.

After two years of this program, there developed a feeling on the part of teachers that the enrichment lost in such an accelerated program should be rescued, and so another revision was made possible by scheduling Algebra I in grade 8 for the bright. As a result of this change, we now have the following program in mathematics for the best students in this subject: grade 8, Algebra I; grade 9, Algebra II; grade 10, geometry (Plane including Solid); grade 11, Trigonometry and Advanced Algebra; and grade 12, Analytic Geometry and Calculus. This grade 12 offering is an advanced placement course.

Stewart B. Atkinson is Principal of Darien High School, Darien, Connecticut. Enrollment, 825.

SCIENCE

Science is another field in which there have been, in our school, several curriculum changes aimed at benefitting the academically talented student. Our original science offerings were the following: grade 9 (JHS), general science; grade 10, biology; grade 11, chemistry; and grade 12, physics. In addition to a general stiffening of the work of all top sections, we now offer biology in grade 9 to selected students. This makes the following science schedule possible: grade 9, biology; grade 10, chemistry; grade 11, physics; and grade 12, Biology II or Chemistry II or Physics II. In addition to adding more courses for the bright science student, the general approach to one course has been changed. This is in physics, where the PSSC approach is used in the first section.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

No courses have been added recently to the offerings in the foreign language field. The sole curriculum adjustment here for the bright student has been the following out in French IV of the recommendations of the Advanced Placement Program. These call for a severe toughening of the work of the course, in the case of the regular French IV offering of most high schools.

ENGLISH

In a school where homogeneous grouping starts with the English classes, and in which such classes are grouped on as many levels as there are sections (twelve different sections in English IV), it may be properly supposed that the top class is very highly selected and is composed of very bright young people. In our school this situation exists to the degree that the first section of English IV is an advanced placement course because of the very nature of its regular class activities.

SOCIAL STUDIES

Two curriculum adjustments have been made recently in the field of the social studies, both in behalf of the bright students. (1) The first section of United States history is now an advanced placement class. (2) We are adding to the social studies program in grade 12 a course in Asia Studies to be taken in addition to the regular course, C.S.I., by interested students who have achieved well in previous World history and U.S. history.

**KEEPING UP TO DATE WITH DEVELOPMENTS IN SCIENCE,
MATHEMATICS, MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AND
ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS—REPRESENTING PAST
POSITION STATEMENTS OF THE NASSP—A SYMPOSIUM**

CHAIRMAN: *Robert J. Keller*, Professor of Education and Director, University High School, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN W. RENNER

SCIENCE

WITHIN the past ten years, many changes have taken place in the science curriculum of our schools because changes in our culture have demanded them. Many different kinds of people—military leaders, business people, columnists, and “ordinary citizens,” as well as scientists—have become aware of the major role that science plays in our lives. These people are also aware that science plays a vital role in our national security. From all parts of our society, demands are coming for our schools to take the action necessary to remove the cloud of scientific inferiority that is becoming visible on the horizon.

Providing scientific literacy for the population is now recognized as being an important function of today's secondary schools. We are living not only in an age of science, but also in an age of expanding science and expanding applications of science. This expansion of science must be reflected in our secondary schools. Many efforts are being made today that reflect the recognized need for more and improved science instruction in our schools. What are the important developments that have resulted?

1. Science is no longer considered a subject for only the junior and senior high schools. Rather, it is being accepted as a subject to be taught from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade.

Introducing such a program demands that other subject matter areas be examined for unnecessary content which can be deleted to provide time for science instruction. This is particularly true in the elementary grades. The science curriculum in the elementary school must also be carefully prepared in order to make the most effective use of the time available. Also, other areas should be examined to determine how science could be integrated into them. For example, a great deal of reading and arithmetic can be taught through science. In the upper elementary grades, writing and grammatical construction can be taught through the writing of simple reports.

The program of experiences in science must be integrated from grade to grade and must not be specialized courses in specific content areas. A great deal of attention must be given to the activities in which the students engage in order to keep the natural innate curiosity of children alive.

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2. The objectives of science instruction are changing.

Science has two main parts—its processes and its products. Science educators have insisted for some time that understanding and being able to use the processes of science (its methods) are much more important than a rote knowledge of its products; i.e., its facts. Many things such as contests, exhibits, and college entrance examinations have required that teachers emphasize the products rather than the processes of science. After being on dead center for some time, the pendulum is beginning to swing once again. This time it is swinging toward recognizing that the most important contribution that science makes toward educating boys and girls is to give them an understanding of and facility with the scientific processes.

3. There are four major science curriculum programs under way.

The oldest and most nearly complete of these programs is the Physical Science Study Committee at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Just recently, a textbook based on this program was published by the D. C. Heath Company. The Biological Science Curriculum Study of the American Institute of Biological Sciences has its headquarters at the University of Colorado, the Chemical Education Materials Study is working in California, and the Chemical Bond Approach to Teaching Chemistry is headquartered at Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana. Each of these programs is making a major contribution to the teaching of its particular discipline.

Two curriculum efforts are needed. The most urgently needed one is a program that will study the entire science curriculum from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. So far, each individual curriculum effort has concentrated only on one portion of the curriculum, and has, by necessity, neglected the others. If a major K-12 study of the science curriculum is not undertaken, a complete study of the junior high-school science curriculum must be done.

4. The employment of supervisors for science by school systems is increasing.

In science, as in other areas, each experience must be built on a previous experience. Perhaps in science it is more critical than other areas because the thread of the scientific process must carry through each experience and each course. Only in this way can a K-12 science program be continuous. In addition, duplication and omission must be guarded against. In order to have a continuous, integrated program, there must be one or more people who are free to view the entire program and not just parts of it as individual teachers are forced to do. Within the past few years, the number of science coordinators, supervisors, and consultants employed by school systems is increasing. This is a healthy sign.

Summary of the presentation made by KENNETH E. BROWN**MATHEMATICS**

THIS year 200,000 elementary- and high-school pupils are studying new programs in mathematics. Why have new mathematics programs at these levels? The reason is that there has been a revolution in college and research mathematics. The revolution has not been caused by the Pentagon, or the USSR. It is a part of the new technological era into which we are entering with breath-taking swiftness.

Mathematics has become the basic fabric of our social order. The strength of that fabric—in fact the very survival of our nation—may depend upon the amount and kind of mathematics taught in the classrooms of our schools. This is a great responsibility for those who design and administer mathematics programs. We cannot take this responsibility lightly without giving the harvest of foolish action to our children. Some administrators, teachers, and mathematicians have been attempting to meet the challenge. Several groups of teachers, as well as psychologists and mathematicians from college and industry have prepared sample school mathematics textbooks.

The School Mathematics Study Group project is the largest united effort to improve school mathematics in the history of education. The project has developed experimental material for grades 7 through 12. During the school year 1959-60, this experimental material was tried out in 45 of the states. In the experiment, more than 400 teachers used the material with 42,000 pupils. An experiment of this magnitude had never been undertaken before in a subject matter area. After the material had a tryout, it was revised. Now sample textbooks, enrichment pamphlets, and teachers' manuals are available for each grade, 7 through 12.

All the improved programs are attempting to stress unifying themes or ideas in mathematics rather than unrelated topics. Many high-school pupils have seen algebra as a series of separate and unrelated manipulative tricks. The improved programs have looked for the big ideas in mathematics and tried to use them as central themes. In some cases this has led to the introduction of words and ideas from college mathematics. Sets theory, for example, is a unifying idea found in higher mathematics which is so simple that it can be introduced in the elementary school.

The structure of mathematics is emphasized in all the improved programs. That is, the pupil is shown that general principles or properties apply to many different operations in all branches of mathematics. A few general principles are emphasized rather than many unrelated rules.

National foundations have given generously to provide experimentation with new textbooks. The Carnegie Foundation gave a half-million dol-

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lars to one project. The Federal government has contributed \$3-4 million to develop sample textbooks because it believes improvement is so important and so urgent. It is now up to administrators and teachers to use the material in improving their own programs. It is up to you to make the changes that are so badly needed.

Summary of the presentation made by MARJORIE C. JOHNSTON

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

THE new direction in modern foreign language teaching recommended two years ago by the NASSP Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development is clearly observable today. Many schools are reorganizing their language program and extending the sequence of study in continuous progression from grade 7 through 12, providing also for the continued progress of pupils who enter high school with some foreign language proficiency. This year approximately one fifth of the students in grades 9-12 are studying a modern foreign language—an increase nationally of four per cent over the enrollments of two years ago. More than 2,000 high schools have installed a language laboratory and many others have acquired for the language classrooms audio-visual equipment and materials to facilitate the development of a speaking competency in the language. More than 500 high schools have introduced the study of Russian. Achievement tests reflecting the new approaches to instruction are being developed in five languages for junior and senior high-school levels.

Teachers are improving their facility in the spoken language and trying out new methods and instructional materials. Over 3,000 high-school teachers have attended government-sponsored language institutes, and thousands more have participated in workshops and demonstrations conducted by the local school system or by state educational agencies. Proficiency tests for teachers, to measure the qualifications listed in the Appendix of the NASSP position statement, are already available in experimental form. Thirty-eight state departments of education have added to their staff one or more foreign language consultants to provide services to schools and help strengthen foreign language instruction throughout the state.

This, in brief, is the report of progress, and it is encouraging. What are the problem areas, and where can the principal's effort be applied most effectively?

The improvements recommended by NASSP have received general acceptance, but they cannot be accomplished in a short period of time.

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Vigorous work in the new direction must therefore be continued, and accelerated where possible, for many years. All of the suggestions in Part IV, for implementing the recommendations, are still useful and applicable.

Three policy questions concerning acquisition of equipment, supervision, and offerings perhaps need special consideration. (1) In order for students to get maximum benefit from audio-lingual teaching, each language classroom needs at least one tape recorder and a supply of good audio materials which will be used regularly as an integral part of the instruction. Many inexpensive devices and materials can multiply the abilities of the teacher without installing a complete language laboratory. Decisions about the type of installation best suited to the school can best be reached when the teachers, principal, A-V staff, and purchasing department plan together. (2) Whenever there is more than one foreign language in a school or more than one level of the school system involved in the foreign language program, cooperative planning, inservice workshops, close supervision, and coordination are essential. A special supervisor for foreign languages, especially in city systems, can make the difference between mediocre and outstanding foreign language programs. (3) The introduction of Russian, Chinese, Arabic, or some other important non-Western language ought to be considered as soon as competent teachers, continuity of program, and appropriate instructional materials can be assured. Some schools with strong foreign language programs might find it possible now to begin planning for such an innovation. Most schools, however, would do better to concentrate at present on strengthening their program in the language already offered.

Summary of the presentation made by ARNO JEWETT

ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS

“WRITING must be taught. Students learn to write by writing under careful guidance and by having their written work evaluated carefully and thoughtfully.” This statement, accepted for the NASSP position paper *English Language Arts in the Comprehensive High School* a year ago, reflects a significant and encouraging movement which is developing rapidly today.

In some instances more emphasis on writing has been made possible by the reduction in teacher load to 100-110 pupils per day, by team teaching, and by weekly 2-hour writing laboratories. A widely adopted approach during the past year has been the use of lay readers who have been carefully screened, adequately oriented, and assigned to correct and evaluate

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themes. Lay readers have been paid on an hourly basis by the school board or through foundation funds; in a few instances they have worked without pay. Successful programs have required close coordination between teacher and reader. Some teachers grade their pupils' compositions after the lay reader has checked them for mechanics and content. Teachers then analyze the weaknesses of the compositions and provide remedial instruction on an individual or group basis. A most promising development is the use of lay readers to correct papers written for social studies and other classes.¹

A second development—or concern—in English during the past year has been articulation, particularly from high school to college. Needless repetition of instruction in grammar, usage, and mechanics has been recognized; a similar repetition in literature was recently noted by Frederick L. Gwynne, who writes that "Many students . . . are assigned *Huckleberry Finn* in grade school, in high school, in freshman English, in the American literature survey, in novel and general education courses, and in graduate schools. . . ."

In at least a third of the states, high-school English teachers and college composition instructors are holding conferences to consider their programs in English. College instructors seldom try to dictate the nature of the secondary-school English course. Instead, they generally indicate the language competencies desired of entering freshmen, describe college standards, and outline the required composition course.² In turn senior high-school teachers of English are trying to prepare college-bound students to satisfy specific requirements of colleges they expect to attend, in addition to providing them a solid, broad preparation in English language arts.

Articulation between elementary, junior high, and senior high schools is being achieved by having representative committees develop courses of study and scope and sequence charts which extend from K-12 or even into college. This development seems to be growing because teachers are trying to avoid repetition of content, except for necessary practice in basic skills.

Another development is the tremendous use of paperbound books to enrich and extend the basic, diversified program offered in literature anthologies. In some accelerated programs for the academically talented, especially honors courses, paperbound classics are the nucleus of the curriculum. High-school bookstores which sell quality paperback books have proved extremely popular with students, parents, and teachers in cities like Buffalo, New York.

Two major nationwide efforts to raise standards and improve instruction in English merit the attention of administrators. The first is outlined

¹Harvey Handel, et al., "Pupils Learn To Write in Junior High School Lay Reader Program," *The English Record*, fall 1960, pp. 35-44.

²Wilmer A. Lamar (ed.), "Freshman Composition Courses in Ten Illinois Colleges," *Illinois English Bulletin*, December 1960, pp. 1-19.

in *Preparation in English for College-Bound Students* issued last November by the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board, which plans to develop sample curricula and materials, grades 9-12, for college-bound students. The second, which reveals in detail serious deficiencies and needs in English today and which proposes Federal aid to improve English instruction at all levels, is *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* published in 1961 by the National Council of Teachers of English.

HOW MUCH AND WHAT KIND OF STUDENT ACTIVITIES IN TODAY'S SECONDARY SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: S. C. Doss, Jr., Principal, High School, Anniston, Alabama

INTERROGATORS:

Bright E. Greiner, Principal, High School, Espanola, New Mexico

Jonathan Y. Lowe, Principal, Beverly Hills Junior High School, Huntington, West Virginia

Walter R. Puett, Principal, High School, Murphy, North Carolina

Summary of the presentation made by EDWARD M. DILLON

EVERY activity which is sponsored by the school must have as its primary object the furtherance of the education of the pupil. Any group whose sole reason for scheduling a social event is sheer amusement is not justified in the use of school time for planning or school facilities for holding such an event.

Our dances are meant to be a laboratory session in the social graces; games and sports are played primarily to enhance civilized sportsmanship and promote the physical health of the participants; dramatics, on the secondary level, are aimed not necessarily at a polished professional performance, but rather are included in the co-curriculum in order to provide a healthful, normal outlet for self-expression for those interested in this area of endeavor; clubs of various kinds are sponsored in order to provide an outlet for budding interests which may later flower into worth-while and constructive after-school hobbies.

No school activity receiving support from the S.A.A. may use arbitrary methods of selecting its membership. While we all recognize that some students by virtue of superior natural endowment are better suited than others to contributing membership in some groups, we are all committed to the democratic ideal in American education and must recognize that we cannot have our cake and eat it too.

Edward M. Dillon is Principal of East Hartford High School, East Hartford, Connecticut. Enrollment, 2,248.

It is incumbent upon the advisors of the several clubs and activities to promote those kinds of events which will tend to add to and enhance the reputation of our school, rather than detract from and lower it.

The student council of East Hartford High has complete jurisdiction, subject to the principal, over all activities sponsored by the Student Activity Association. Each home room, 68 in number, is represented by one of its members in the student council. The officers of the student council are chosen by the student body as a whole. One of our secretaries is assigned the duty of keeping the books, depositing accounts, making out checks, *etc.* Teachers who serve as advisers, or coaches, for the various activities submit their estimate expenses and estimate income to the budget committee of the student council. The budget is then acted upon and each adviser is notified of the budget allotment. Advisers then are allowed to draw on their accounts subject to the approval of the principal. A check on all money is kept by the S.A.A. faculty secretary. This past year the total budget was \$16,730.

PARTICIPATION IN ACTIVITIES

Every student should participate in extracurricular activities while in high school. Not only does such participation make school life more enjoyable, but it helps to build the well-rounded education essential for college scholarship eligibility and employment reference. A student should not participate in any activity which will endanger his academic progress. The following plan is suggested: (1) Seniors and juniors with a C average or less should participate in not more than three activities, and (2) sophomores and freshmen with a C average or less, not more than two activities.

In Connecticut, all interscholastic activities are under the control of the Connecticut Interscholastic Athletic Conference, a subsidiary agency of the Connecticut Association of Secondary-School Principals. The C.I.A.C. has devised a set of By-Laws which govern all of the activities, athletic, social, *etc.* sponsored by the association. A separate set of Rules of Eligibility and Control for High-School Athletics in Connecticut is in force.

Summary of the presentation made by GUY SHELLENBARGER

MY ASSIGNMENT is to give you a picture of the activity program in a typical Oregon high school. I believe our program is fairly common to schools of our size around the state. Our school has a heavy activity program. A review of that section of last year's annual reveals over 50 organizations pictured. The activity program regulates the schools' social life,

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class activities, clubs, athletics, music, dramatics, journalism, and student council.

Student participation in the activity program is high. A review of last year's graduates reveals that the average senior belongs to two clubs and participates in at least one other phase of the activity program (athletics, music, speech, *etc.*).

Of the 1,330 students in this four-year high school, we transport nearly 900. Our district covers a large area and some students are transported as far as 20 miles. Staggered starting and dismissal times and multiple lunch periods preclude activity meetings before school, at noon, or after dismissal time in the afternoon. An activity period during the school day is a must if the program is to survive.

After several years of experimentation, we have combined the functions of a home-room period with those of an activity period. We operate it in this manner:

Fifth period of a seven-period day is made 35 minutes longer than the other 55-minute periods. The last 35 minutes of this period is called home-room period. A bell signal sets it off from the regular class time. His fifth period instructor is automatically the student's home-room adviser.

One home room per week (Monday) is given to the activities of the home room. Group guidance topics are discussed, students' schedules and programs are reviewed, and the functions ordinarily associated with the home room are consummated.

The remaining four periods per week are scheduled for activities. An Activity Calendar is prepared for several weeks ahead. Requests for class and club meetings and assemblies are made by advisers and placed on the calendar which is adhered to strictly.

We have, several times, since the race into space has stimulated the academic side of our school program, seriously discussed the place of the activity program in our school. Invariably, the discussions begin on an "activities must be deemphasized" theme. Undue emphasis on activities and the resultant ill effect on academic effort, the expense in time and money, the overload on faculty all seem to indicate that it would be desirable to curtail the activity program.

At this point in the discussion, some capable and respected faculty member will speak up and point out that students learn much in the activity program that is not taught in academic classes. This defender of activities is usually one of the more heavily burdened instructors.

The pendulum swings the other direction and there is much testimony regarding the worth of activities. Our conclusions are that, although the activities are time consuming, the values are such that it should be continued.

It seems that, in Oregon, the activity program is here to stay. An informal survey among a group of principals elicited these thoughts which reflect the general appraisal of activities in several schools of our state.

1. "The activity load of teachers should be reviewed annually to make the load equitable."

2. "There should be a critical appraisal of the worth of individual activities. Those which have outgrown their usefulness should be eliminated."

3. "There should be in effect some form of control which prevents a student from overloading himself with activities."

4. "While activities should be kept subordinate to academic accomplishments, the worth of activities is such that they have a rightful and valuable place in a school."

5. "The place of the activity program is to supplement and enhance the academic program, but its secondary role does not make it dispensable."

6. "My experience has been that the most capable and dedicated instructors on a faculty are boosters for activities."

7. "Student morale seems to be closely tied to participation in activities."

8. "There is little correlation between heavy participation in activities and poor grades. In fact, the opposite seems true."

9. "Certain facets of the activity program are invaluable public relations mediums."

10. "If we are to be concerned with the social growth of our students, we must have activities for they offer the best opportunity for developing social competence."

I have told you about the place of activities in a typical Oregon high school, and I included some thoughts of my colleagues on the subject. I hope that what I have said will add to the general discussion of this topic which is highly pertinent in the operation of a high school in these difficult days.

Summary of the presentation made by HUGH M. SHAFER

ALL activities and experiences by which and through which pupils learn, we call curriculum. It may be divided for purposes of schools into class and extra-class activities. The latter is our designated area of concern this afternoon. Nevertheless, it cannot be viewed accurately in total isolation from in-class and "in-community" activities.

Let us consider the question of how much extra-class activity for secondary-school pupils by using a parallelism. Growing plants are similar to growing, developing adolescents in that they both have certain, though different, needs. Most plants need moisture, food, sunlight, and a

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favorable climate. How much moisture a gardener or a rancher must furnish depends on the amount of rainfall nature provides, the make-up of characteristics of the particular plant, the amount and intensity of sunlight provided, and the general environment in which the plant exists. The "greenhouse gardener" attempts to provide and thus control all these needs and outcomes. In the schools, we as educators have attempted too long to be all things to all pupils.

What society provides—for example, art galleries, museums, zoos, parks, churches, home, government, libraries, theaters, police, armed forces, camps, swim clubs, labor organizations, summer vacations, travel, picnics, *etc.*—should be known and carefully appraised by the principal when building an extra-class activity program for a specific school. Many needed activities can be added to the community's list when principals provide help in organizing and implementing out-of-school opportunities and activities for pupils. This represents a new type of educational leadership for some principals. It puts educators and schools in cooperation with rather than in competition with community agencies and institutions. It adds another significant task to guidance services of the school. It takes better organizing. It may require less tax money. Pupils may experience reduced shock when taking on the robe of maturity in society following graduation. Greenhouse plants look beautiful, but they often cost more, taste flat, and experience shock when put to the test of service to society.

Although our consideration thus far suggests the possibility of certain reductions in the amount of extra-class activities in the secondary school, it also has implications for the kind of activities. Certainly where no out-of-school experiences can be stimulated and where in-class activities do not adequately meet the imperative needs of youth in a school attendance area, extra-class activities germane to those needs should be provided and largely at public expense.

Eighty per cent of a representative group of secondary-school principals in the United States said in 1959 that, "Extra-curricular activities are more important in a democratic society than in a totalitarian state." Schools, therefore, need some form of student participation in school government.

Audience behavior, appreciation, and team haul or group spirit can be developed best in audience situations. School spirit and a belief in school is important enough to recommend carefully planned school assemblies and home-room programs.

We are said to be a civilization of books and papers. Therefore, publications are recommended, as are creative activities and hobbies which promote the worth-while use of leisure time.

THE STUDENT COUNCIL—PARTNER OR PLAYTHING?

CHAIRMAN: *R. Earl Farnsworth*, Principal, Senior High School, Fort Smith, Arkansas

INTERROGATORS:

Donald C. Cruickshank, Principal, Union High School, Fullerton, California

Aram Damarjian, Principal, Rham High School, Hebron, Connecticut

G. H. Deutschlander, Assistant Principal, High School Berea, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by **KENNETH F. BICK**

THE principal should be the heart-center-core of the ultimate in a student council. He must be constantly in awareness of the objectives and plans of the council in relation to the over-all planning in his school. He must participate with the council and not administrate.

The first thing, and most important, is, with the cooperation of the board of education and superintendent, to select a person to serve as student council sponsor. The sponsor of the council must be a staff member, a person who understands the teacher-pupil relationship. He must understand the teaching-learning situation of student council work. He is selected for this role because there is confidence in the individual's make-up to do the job within the over-all frame work of the school. He is a person who will be in constant interrelation and communication with the principal *before* plans and decisions are made by the student council.

Student councils will not succeed, nor will students succeed, if they do not have leadership.

A student council is organized, maintained, and exists, individually and collectively, only because it is ready, willing, and able to serve. Serve whom?—its school, community, and nation. The principal's primary role here is to do all in his power to develop this philosophy with the faculty, school community, and especially the council.

How does a council proceed to serve? First, it organizes its constitution. It defines its areas of operation by considering his limitations and its spheres of influence. The council does not administer a school or community. It simply participates, and actively, in the organization, maintenance, and administration of the school. The council is not the end but rather it is a means to the end.

Having defined its area of operation, the council is now ready to look for service opportunities. You cannot solve a problem unless you are well aware that there is a problem, and that there is an opportunity for service. Are the problems and opportunities for service within the coun-

Kenneth F. Bick is Principal of the Jonesville Senior High School, Jonesville, Wisconsin.

cil's area of jurisdiction? Next, is the council able to handle it, is the council ready to serve?

You will find many possibilities for service if your eyes, ears, and heart are "in tune." The opportunities will be many. "Take it easy"—you cannot solve all the problems of all the people. However, you can solve some of the problems (service) of some of the people some of the time. Therefore, take stock and look over the areas—start with a service that your council can perform with success. Nothing succeeds like success. When the success of the project is assured, the time is now ripe to turn the project over to some other group in the school to continue and the council turns its efforts to a new area.

You, as principal, must strive to demonstrate that with privilege goes responsibility. There is no greater lesson to be learned through council participation than that of individual responsibility. He must exemplify that good followership is as important as good leadership. You, as principal, must practice courtesy, understanding, and consideration. You illustrate by example the importance of the academic and co-curricular activities. You must show a pride in accomplishments of your council and give a pat on the back to those individuals of the council and of the student body that have earned such commendation. There is an old saying and it was never more true than today, "You can catch more flies with honey than with vinegar."

Remember—What You Are, Your Council Becomes. It can have prestige—it can have a position of acceptable authority with your faith in young people and with patience.

Summary of the presentation made by NELSON F. HURLEY

STUDENT councils can become costly playthings because of (1) lack of leadership by the principal, (2) lack of vision by the sponsor, and (3) lack of understanding by the faculty and student body. They can become valuable partners in any school where the opposite situations are true.

Student participation in the government of a school implies that a principal who desires it must understand its purposes, provide for leadership training, help develop a sense of values within the council, and make possible school-wide understanding and support of its activities. Fundamentally, the status of the student council is a reflection of the value attached to it by the principal and his personal interest in its growth.

Student councils are asked to do many things. They can become so busy being a messenger and collection service that they have no time to do anything else. What are some signs that the council is becoming a plaything? How can this be prevented? If the council is to become a

Nelson F. Hurley is Principal of Parkville Senior High School, Parkville, Baltimore, Maryland.

force for good, its accomplishments must contribute to its becoming such a force. Against this, consider the following which, if carried to excess, renders the council impotent as a constructive force.

1. Conducting fund drive after fund drive in the school for various agencies
2. Utilizing the major part of its planning time to produce "fun activities" for the student body
3. Becoming a ticket disbursing and collection agency
4. Mistaking "school songs and yells" for school spirit, leaving to other organizations the identification and recognition of good citizenship
5. Advocating major changes in the school's program, without understanding the council's responsibility to policies already established by the administration or the board of education
6. Sponsoring "fun" occasions during the regular school day which tend to disrupt teaching or detract from the dignity of the classroom teacher
7. Allowing a worthy project to collapse due to poor planning, lack of insight, and lack of follow through
8. Announcing the adoption of a plan which later is found to be in conflict with board of education policies
9. Assuming that the faculty and student body know and automatically endorse all student council plans
10. Always taking a position on controversial matters that exempts them from student criticism.

A principal can prevent a council from becoming a plaything if he chooses. He can and should select the most capable person he can get for student council sponsor and provide him with every possible experience in student council work on a local, state, and national level. Among the principal, council, and sponsor, there should be a clearcut understanding of the policies of the school and the board of education with respect to the areas of authority and responsibility of the council.

The sponsor should enjoy the full support of the principal. He should encourage the institution of a leadership training program for all student council officers and committee chairmen and, through these and the sponsor, develop the necessary techniques for leadership and communications.

The council and sponsor should be encouraged to distinguish between the various types of activities they promote and to assess their relative worth to the school's progress.

The principal should insist that all decisions made by the council be rooted in common sense and full understanding of all issues involved. He should channel more and more decision-making situations to the council as its members show increasing growth and capabilities to handle them.

The council should be encouraged to handle controversial issues utilizing all available aids to decision making and to stand firm in its final position.

There should be held, at least once each semester, a meeting of the council, the sponsor, and the principal to assess the worth of the council's

achievements in relation to such areas as (a) service to the school, (b) recognition and promotion of good school citizenship, (c) recognition of leadership and scholarship, (d) improvements in student grooming and deportment, (e) improvement in student-teacher relationships, (f) status and worth of long-range projects, and (g) growth in status of home-room representative.

On the basis of such evaluations, the council may want to re-direct its planning and energies. It will want to shy away from "busy work" and move in the direction of more substantial accomplishments. If done in the right climate and with an objective attitude, each evaluation helps build a firmer foundation for the council and the endless succession of leaders who grow from it. The principal has a wonderful opportunity for leadership through his beliefs in the many capabilities of the boys and girls of his school.

Summary of the presentation made by C. P. WRIGHT

THE student council must help raise the sights of the student body. The council is the agency in the best position to influence student opinion. The aims and objectives of the student council should be understood by the student body as a whole. The council should be aware of the needs of the students and what is expected of the council serving them. The work of the council should then be planned around the needs and expectations.

Successful understanding of the aims and objectives of the council can be achieved through conferences with the administrator, faculty, and student body in general assemblies and home-room meetings. The school principal must be a steadying force by consulting student council leaders when formulating policies and plans for school and student activities. He must allow his own thinking to be modified by the thinking of the student council leaders. Though, legally, the management of the school is delegated to the administrator and cannot be delegated to others, the principal must be prepared to accept the responsibility and actions of the student council on important school matters if they are in agreement with the objectives set up for the welfare of all. "If students are to learn to work cooperatively and to live together democratically, they must have the right and opportunity to participate in actual school management. They must share in the development of the programs as well as in the administration of them."¹

C. P. Wright is Principal of Guthrie High School, Guthrie, Oklahoma. Enrollment, 450.

¹*The Student Council in The Secondary-School.* Washington 6, D. C.; The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1950, page 290.

The thinking of the student council may well be used in critical self-analysis and evaluation of school problems if there is an opportunity for the council to express itself. The council should feel that it is doing something worth while, and should be certain that what is being done is worth while. This self-governed organization helps build great leaders of to-morrow who will hold the progress of many communities in their power.

Effective student councils are not achieved overnight. The council should become more effective each year. There should be much done to establish a sense of responsibility and to encourage initiative in council members. The student body should respect the council membership. More students should seek membership on the council than any other office when an election of members is held. The council should be one of action without controversy on "rights" and "powers."

After talking with several school principals and council advisers in Oklahoma, I have listed a few basic ideas upon which some of the various school councils, including our own, are built.

1. Every council must operate with a constitution.
2. Selection of council members should be set up in order to insure that a majority of members are true student leaders. Highly recommend that class presidents be automatically council members.
3. The principal, or members of the school faculty, appointed by the principal, should act as council adviser or advisers.
4. A physical project should be attempted each year. Visible evidence should be seen, years later, of the work done by the student council.
5. "Representative government" should be exemplified by the work of the council.
6. The council should concentrate upon achieving its goal through organization and resources of the school in general and causing other organizations, even the school board, to support financially the larger projects it may attempt.

"It seems clear that the understandings and skills involved in the practice by democratic citizenship cannot be acquired from books alone. The school itself must become a laboratory in government, where boys and girls can learn democracy by practicing it."²

² Edgar G. Johnston and Roland C. Faunce. *Student Activities in the Secondary School*. New York: The Ronald Press. Page 29.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE READING SKILLS AND HABITS OF JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS?

CHAIRMAN: *H. D. Karns*, Principal, Junior High School, Junction City, Kansas

INTERROGATORS:

William E. Hoth, Associate Professor of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

R. R. Laske, Principal, Junior High School, Clintonville, Wisconsin

Oscar A. Oksol, Chairman, Department of Education, Augustana College, Sioux Falls, South Dakota

Cary M. Pace, Jr., Principal, Mohawk Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by G. ROBERT CARLSEN

THE nature of the reading problem in the junior high school is very simply stated: boys and girls coming into the schools are expected to cope with materials of instruction for which they do not have the necessary reading skills. We have been inclined to seek the answer in only one direction: how can we give instruction to youngsters so that they can read the materials of instruction. The answer undoubtedly is to be found in two directions: not only the abilities of boys and girls need to be improved, but the instructional materials and methods also need themselves to be reconsidered.

The junior high school inherits from the elementary school two kinds of students. There is a group of students who are educationally retarded in their reading ability. These students, for one or more reasons, have not profited to the limits of their ability from the reading instruction in the elementary grades. They may be the victims of the increasing enrollments in the elementary classrooms, so that they have slipped by without a teacher's catching up with certain specific blockages in their way. They may have developed reading readiness skills far later than expected of most students. So by the time they were in the third or fourth grade and were really ready to read, they had already built a defeatist attitude toward reading. They may, because of the mobility of their families, have been given reading instruction in spurts and pieces by half a dozen different school systems. They may be the victims of a sequence of poor teachers. It is possible for a system to be good, but for an individual child, quite by chance, to be assigned to a sequence of the weakest teachers in the system.

G. Robert Carlsen is Professor of English and Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

Fortunately this group of educationally retarded students is small. Estimates run between five and ten per cent of the total student population.

The far larger group of students are those who, having come through a reasonably good elementary school reading program, have profited nearly to the limits of their abilities from the program. These are still a widely assorted group of students in reading ability, and they still cause the teacher a great deal of trouble. The intensive study of reading during the last fifty years has shown many of the reasons why this is true.

1. The better the reading program, the farther apart students tend to become in their reading skills. Reading does have a decided correlation with intelligence. In a good program, the child with less native endowment will progress slowly. The child with greater endowment will progress more rapidly. It is as simple as that. All are growing, but some more rapidly than others. Studies show that by the junior high-school level, the normal span will be at least eight years. Some seventh-grade pupils will be reading at third-grade level, and some at eleventh- or twelfth-grade level. This is the result of good instruction, not of poor instruction. If you continue to work on reading skills, the gap will widen so that by senior high school, it will increase to a ten- or eleven-year span. No reading program will succeed in making students alike or in raising the lower group to grade expectancy. The human brain just does not grow in a way to make such possible.

2. Reading is apparently a cluster of somewhat related skills (almost infinite in number), not a single skill as has been often assumed by teachers. A different set of skills is necessary to read a time table from the skills used in reading a house plan. Both of these are quite different from the skills needed to read a history book. Within the school day, the skills called for vary widely. Reading literature is quite a different act from reading scientific explanations. Reading a manual of shop directions or a rule book for playing a game calls forth different skills from those used in reading mathematics. It is probable that our predilections for some subject matter areas over others are partially determined by our abilities to read the materials of those areas. It becomes obvious, then, that the elementary school cannot possibly teach students those exact skills that they need as they progress into more advanced work.

3. As a corollary to the last statement, we are finding that developing skills in reading is a lifelong process of refinement, as are most educational undertakings. We have been inclined to assume that growth will take place automatically simply through the process of reading itself as we mature. Such does not seem to be the case. A graduate student of mine demonstrated that in a college American literature class where much reading was assigned, there was an actual regression in reading skills by the end of the semester; while in a comparable class where reading was given some attention, there was growth in reading for all levels of students. Therefore, we need, throughout the educational program,

to push all students to improve their reading, although we realize we will push them farther and farther apart in the progress.

KINDS OF READING PROGRAMS

With these things in mind, I should like to describe the kinds of reading programs that I have discovered in operation in a variety of junior high schools.

The Continuation of the Basal Reading Program for All Students Through the Seventh and Eighth Grades

Such a practice makes reading a required subject for all students in the school, usually separated from the language arts classes. Many of the basal reading series now continue through at least grade eight. A number of older anthology series have recently redesigned their offerings so that selections are chosen and arranged to serve primarily for the development of reading. The programs usually contain a number of rather simple teenage tales with a high level of student interest. Many of these are arranged around some sort of topic or theme such as "Our Animal Friends." In addition, there may be a sprinkling of scientific or historical writing and some example of directions which require close reading. In such a program a good deal of attention is given to refining word attack skills, to picking out the central meaning, to using reference tools, to enhancing speed in reading, to following organizational structure, to skimming, and the like. The emphasis is away from literature as an art form helpful in understanding the nuances of living, and toward the skills of reading.

Reading Skills as a Series of Units in the Language Arts Classes

The last decades have rather steadily developed the language arts point of view in place of the older concept of English. English, in its early twentieth century meaning, was confined pretty largely to instruction in composition and written language and in literary analysis or appreciation. The language arts concept embraces at least four major areas: reading, writing, speaking, and listening, with the development of literary awareness as only one part of reading. A number of junior high schools, in adopting such a point of view, have organized the program in a cycle of units in which students make a frontal attack on each of the areas for a period of a few weeks' time. Each of the years contains at least one major unit on the skills of reading for all students. An examination of recent text books, particularly those in composition, shows this kind of structure. The reading units, if carefully planned, usually give emphasis to two or three skills in each in a cumulative pattern. Usually they include some attention to guiding students into the world of books as well as dealing only with the skills.

Homogeneous Grouping of Students

More and more frequently junior high schools, where there are sufficient numbers of students, are grouping students in the language arts

areas. Perhaps the most frequent pattern is one in which students are placed in three levels. Those who are one or more years ahead of grade placement in reading are placed in accelerated classes. Those who are one or more years below grade level, in special classes in which the major emphasis will be on the improvement of reading skills. The bulk of students then go into the middle group which, in theory, should have a reading range of not much greater than a two-year span. While many schools consider such things as I.Q., recommendation of the teachers, and maturity in grouping, I find that most rely heavily on a reading test score for placement.

Little attention is given to reading in the upper and middle groups. A great deal of attention is given in the lower group. If I may generalize from my experience of visiting many classes throughout the country where such work is going on, the top classes are a complete and absolute joy. The atmosphere is like a fast game of tennis between teacher and students and students and students. Ideas fly, work is sparkling. The middle group tends to be dead. The feeling is that of one of teachers pulling desperately at a reluctant team of mules. The lower classes are often in the hands of a deeply dedicated and sympathetic teacher who desperately wants to produce a spark, but often with little real knowledge of what to do. She wants to help. She has usually bought some sort of canned program which she administers with imagination and sympathy, while at the same time she seriously doubts that it is really moving where she wants to go. The hope of the administration is that such an emphasis will salvage these lower boys and girls so that they can move into regular classes another year. They are helped, there is no doubt, but they are seldom salvaged. Most of them drop out of school shortly after reaching the legal withdrawal age. I come away from such visits profoundly discouraged, feeling that we have sacrificed the welfare of at least seventy-five per cent of the students to that of the upper twenty-five per cent. I hope that there is some other way of working.

The Clinical Program

A few schools have found a competent, highly trained individual and made it possible for him to work on a clinical basis. The clinic may isolate cases for attention through the use of a mass student testing program, or it finds its cases through teacher referrals. With present instruments, a good clinician can do an almost medical type of diagnosis of the pupil's weaknesses in reading, finding out rather specifically not only his level, but also the specific parts of the process of reading that is causing the pupil's difficulty. However a thorough diagnosis is time consuming and must be individually conducted. From such a diagnosis the clinician can then set up specific kinds of practice sessions that will really be geared to the needs of the pupil. There is no fixed schedule. The pupil may have a weekly or a bi-weekly, or even a daily appointment in the clinic. He comes during a study-hall period, or sometimes during the time he would normally be assigned to a language arts class. In a clinic that I

visited recently in Clinton, Iowa, the teacher had as many as fifteen students in an ordinary classroom, each working independently on a program of remedial work that each had had set up for him.

The problem of setting up a clinic has been that of finding a trained person for the work. Schools are more apt to find a person for the job by providing a grant of money to make it possible for an individual already on the staff to take a year off and train himself for the job in a graduate school offering such a specialization.

Relating Instruction in Reading to the Total Educational Program of the School.

There is a somewhat elusive and yet nevertheless existing relationship between the desire, the interest, or the necessity of the individual to read and the development of his skills in reading. There is a relationship between learning to read and reading to learn, or between *skill* and *will*. The two are pretty well fused by the adolescent years and, as a result, cause major problems in trying to formalize a program. A boy, who tested with second-grade reading ability, nevertheless read with great excitement a government pamphlet on taxidermy. A girl, who seemed unable to cope with reading, was suddenly carried out of herself in the excitement of a book like *Going on Sixteen*.

How long can a pupil be held to a frontal attack on the development of a skill in and by itself before he makes use of the skill in something of value to him? How long, for example, will junior high-school boys practice football before they are allowed to play a game? The more I work with adolescents, the more convinced I become that the development of a skill in and by itself has very short-lived motivational power. They enhance their skill in small doses of practice that are clearly related to something else they want to accomplish.

In the various offerings of the school, the pupil is exposed to a series of concepts geared to his interests, his maturity, and to the needs he will have in adult society. To develop these concepts, we rely heavily on reading materials. If we could take these reading assignments, analyze the particular reading skills involved in them, and conscientiously devote ten to fifteen minutes to specific problems as the assignment comes up, we might do much to develop reading ability for all students. Obviously such a program requires a level of understanding about the materials of instruction and reading on the part of all teachers. However where it has been tried, teachers find that it pays great dividends not only in reading, but also in terms of subject matter understanding.

Such a concept might involve the use of differentiated assignments. Some in a class would be looking for different things in an assignment from others. It also involves the use of multiple materials so that different groups within the same class are tackling a concept through the use of more simplified materials than are others. Ruth Reeves reports such an experiment in the Houston Public Schools in which she demonstrated rather clearly that all students gained in reading, but, as would be ex-

pected, the better students gained more rapidly than the poor ones. This sort of program seems psychologically sound; however, there is a tendency on the part of teachers to deal with only one thing at a time. Thus in the heat of trying to get students in history to see something of the formative forces of American democracy, teachers bypass these short bits of help that might do so much.

IN CONCLUSION

In conclusion, I should like to quote from a novel by James Summers, *Operation A B C*. He says, "Reason would tell almost anyone that the ability to read was the most difficult single accomplishment ever achieved by any man. But in this day, people did not set off skyrocket and dance in the streets when their little boy tackled and subdued this Everest of culture. . . . Nor did they reward the kid's patient teacher with rubies and a crown of laurel. . . . Learning to read was taken with little more enthusiasm in the average family than the regular defrosting of the automatic refrigerator. . . . Only failure to learn causes any family comment."

We can improve the reading abilities of junior high-school students, but only at a price. We must give it some sort of direct attention. In turn something now taught must give way to make the room. We must give it money. It cannot be done with a set of textbooks or the purchase of a four hundred dollar machine. It requires the constant expenditure of far greater sums for books than most schools now spend. It requires a willingness to pay teachers to develop the professional skills they do not now possess. Isn't it about time we faced the public squarely with what it takes to produce the miracles of learning?

Summary of the presentation made by WILLARD R. BECK

MANY students entering junior high school are lacking in the mastery of reading skills and habits to the extent that they are unable to do satisfactory work at their grade level. The junior high school must provide means for remedying these reading difficulties if many failures are to be avoided at the secondary level. The reading problems of these students are usually a result of a multiplicity of factors.

For the past several years, we have been doing some type of remedial reading. Reading is taught to the seventh-grade students as a full-time subject, along with language arts and social studies, in a three-period block under the direction of the same teacher. Students are grouped homogeneously which tends to place them in groups somewhat near their reading level. However, we find individual students with IQ's of

Willard R. Beck is Principal of Central Junior High School, Sheridan, Wyoming. Enrollment, 466.

over 100 who are achieving poorly in reading as determined by reading tests and teacher judgment. During the school year of 1959-60, thirty of these pupils were placed in two sections of about 15 each for special reading instruction. The average gain in reading level of these pupils was 15 months in a five-month period. The smallest gain was 8 months and the largest 27 months. Realizing that all pupils could profit by a special directed program, this year, the seventh grade with an enrollment of 212 students was divided homogeneously into seven blocks. The criteria for this division was *first*, teacher judgment as to whether the student was good, average, or slow. *Second*, was the consideration of reading test scores. *Third*, arithmetic test scores; *fourth*, general achievement test scores, and *fifth*, IQ based on at least three tests. Three blocks were found to be reading well above grade, two at, or near, grade; one slightly below grade level; and one much below grade.

The pupils reading well above grade are continuing with the traditional junior high-school literature program. The other four blocks are grouped for one hour of special reading instruction each day. The slowest group is then again split—those of the highest mental ability, about 15, working with the librarian and those of low mental ability, about 10, working with a remedial teacher. This arrangement allows special instructional methods and material to be brought to bear on specific group weaknesses.

Each group in Central Junior High School has at least one reading period per week in the library. Here under the direction of the teacher and the librarian, special attention is given to the reading interests and habits of the individual pupil. They become familiar with the services of the library, the materials, and are guided in making use of the resources and facilities, but one of the principal purposes of this reading period is to give the pupil direction in his recreational reading program.

During the past two years the Sheridan Schools, under the direction of curriculum coordinator, have placed special emphasis on the development of an over-all reading program, extending from the kindergarten into the high school. The Joplin Plan is now in operation at the elementary level and plans are underway to place greater emphasis on the remedial program at the high-school level.

**PROBLEM CLINIC—
THE EXPERTS COMMENT ON YOUR QUESTIONS**

CHAIRMAN: *Warren C. Seyfert*, Headmaster, Country Day School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

INTERROGATORS:

Rufus A. Brackley, Principal, High School, East Greenwich, Rhode Island

John P. Lozo, Principal, Senior High School, Woodbridge, New Jersey

George E. Shanno, Principal, Senior High School, Hazleton, Pennsylvania

PANEL:

Samuel M. Brownell, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan

Sam M. Lambert, Director, Division of Research, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

James E. Russell, Secretary, Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C.

John M. Stalnaker, President, National Merit Scholarship Corporation, Evanston, Illinois

The Panel answered a variety of questions raised by those attending.

**THE CASE FOR AND AGAINST CORE PROGRAMS AND
BLOCK-TIME CLASSES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL**

CHAIRMAN: *Nelson L. Bossing*, Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

INTERROGATORS:

Orvel A. Criqui, Principal, Central Junior High School, Lawrence, Kansas

Harry T. Gumaer, Principal, Thomas Jefferson Junior High School, Fair Lawn New Jersey

Crawford E. Peek, Principal, John Burroughs Junior High School, Los Angeles, California

Summary of the presentation made by WILLARD M. FETTERHOFF

ALTHOUGH the term "core" was first used on a broad scale in the early thirties, core programs and block-time classes in the junior high school appeared infrequently on the educational scene until about 1940.

Willard M. Fetterhoff is Principal of Prescott Junior High School, Prescott, Arizona. Enrollment, 595.

There has been a consistent growth in scheduling of block-time classes, especially in grades seven and eight, since World War II. In 1956 Ellsworth Tompkins in a study of the daily schedules of 1,250 junior high schools reported that a majority of junior high schools were using some block-time classes in their daily schedules, and that 72.5 per cent of the junior high schools with enrollment over 1,000 were using block-time classes.¹

There continues to be significant experimentation and research in the area of core programs and block-time classes. These efforts are encouraging as they indicate progress toward our objectives of better meeting the needs of adolescents and providing more productive and worth-while programs at the junior high-school level.

Present-day usage of the term "core" is confused, but Faunce and Bossing,² Alberty,³ and Wright,⁴ among others, have classified the several major approaches in the use of block-time classes as indicated below. (Percentage figures indicate the percentage of 947 junior high schools in Wright's study using each type.)

- Type I. Uncorrelated and Subject-Matter Centered (11%)
- Type II. Correlated and Subject-Matter Centered (57%)
- Type III. Integrated, Fused, or Theme Approach (20%)
- Type IV. Adolescent Problems Approach (6%)
- Type V. Problems Approach (6%)

In Type I, two or more subjects are taught, but each retains its separate identity with little or no conscious attempt to correlate material. In Type II, two or more subjects are taught and each retains its identity, but parallel content is included. In Type III, two or more subject areas are replaced by units which usually cut across former subject-matter boundaries. In Type IV, a block of time of two or more periods replaces some subjects; problem areas are identified by teachers; class explores these areas. In Type V, there is no predetermined subject matter; both content and process evolve out of teacher-pupil planning toward goals determined by students and teacher.

Research in the evaluation of the core curriculum has not been conclusive, but it has been favorable. The research on adolescent growth and learning seems to support many of the underlying assumptions of Type IV and V. The increased number of schools trying various forms of block-time classes appears to be a healthy educational trend, for when contentment is reached in educational planning, progress is in danger of ceasing.

¹ Tompkins, Ellsworth, "A Study of the Daily Schedule in 1,250 Junior High Schools," *Bulletin of the NASSP*, Vol. 40, Number 220, May 1956, p. 177.

² Roland C. Faunce and Nelson L. Bossing. *Developing the Core Curriculum*. New York: Prentice Hall, Incorporated. 1951.

³ Harold Alberty. *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1947.

⁴ Grace Wright. *Block-Time Classes and the Core Program in Junior High*. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Office of Education. 1958.

Summary of the presentation made by CARL BECKSTROM

IN EVALUATING the impact of the community on practices regarding the case for and against core programs and block-time classes in the junior high school in Pennsylvania and to avoid some of the confusion which usually surrounds the meaning of this term, a definition of the program is necessary. The program is referred to by various names in the local school district: common learnings, core, social studies, unified studies, social living, fused program, block-time in addition to other less frequently used names. The following definition of this type of a program is taken from a publication sent out from the State Office of Curriculum Development, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. "A common learnings program includes any teacher who instructs a class for two or more consecutive periods and who attempts to integrate instruction in two or more subjects."¹ A survey² of approximately 1,000 secondary schools in Pennsylvania, conducted in 1955-56, showed that 143 schools offered a common learnings program. Eighty-six per cent having common learnings were found to be in the seventh and eighth grades, and 10 per cent in the ninth grade. Another survey was also conducted by Mr. Gibboney in 1957-58, relative to this topic. These two surveys dealing with the impact of the community on practices relative to the Core or Block-Time Programs as found in Pennsylvania reveal the following:

Report on the 1955-56 Survey of Common Learnings

1. How was the common learnings program inaugurated in your school?

Answer—The response from the school administrators indicated that the public had inaugurated this program in two schools.

2. What difficulties are encountered in the common learnings approach to instruction in your schools? *Answer*—Response of administrators to this question indicated that there were four schools who were meeting with opposition in the community.

3. Who plans the content of the program? *Answer*—The answer to this question indicated that in two schools the parents were responsible.

Report on the 1957-58 Survey of Common Learnings

1. *Obstacles*—Among the statements which were listed for the administrators to check, there was no statement dealing with public reaction.

2. Please list any special problems which you face in operating your common learnings program. *Answer*—None of the responses which the administrators made regarding this statement dealt with the reaction of the community to the program.

¹ Richard A. Gibboney, Director Survey of Common Learnings, Bureau of Curriculum Development, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Penna., 1955-56.

² *Ibid.*

Carl Beckstrom is Principal of Elkins Park Junior High School, Elkins Park, Pennsylvania. Enrollment, 650.

No research or reports could be found which gave any indication as to the influence of the community in Pennsylvania upon the initiation of a block-time program in a school or the continuous operation of such a program. This is not an unusual situation. No research sources showed any "impact of community on practices regarding core and block-time." However, some studies were found which may indicate to a certain degree why such research is lacking.

Several studies have been made which attempted to describe the community in terms of interest in and activity about the local school system. The Bay City Studies gave identification of an active community of only 15 per cent, a moderately active community of 24 per cent, and an inactive community of the remaining 61 per cent.³ In a survey which was conducted among 1,817 educators, it was found that educators are becoming very community-conscious and that there is more lay participation in school policy making; even though educators in general do not want active citizen groups, only 17.8 per cent of the educators wanted active participation, 40.9 per cent wanted participation limited, and 30.1 per cent would invite opinions from citizen groups, but would not encourage direct participation.⁴

Much research can be found which deals with citizen committees that have been appointed for a specific task and, when the work has been completed, the committees are disbanded. To find the answer to the possible impact of the community on practices of a core program or block-time practices, not only in Pennsylvania, but in other states, research is needed which will indicate to the professional educator if he has a case for or against such a program from the viewpoint of the public.

³ Peter H. Rossi, *The Publics of Local Schools*, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1954, 109 p. 6.

⁴ M. L. Story, "What Part Should Parents Play in School Administration?" *School Executive*, 70: 52-53; 1951.

SUMMARY of the presentation made by MEREDITH PARRY

Unable to secure a copy of his manuscript.

THE DROP-OUT PROBLEM— A GROWING EDUCATIONAL CONCERN TODAY

CHAIRMAN: *Marshall Foster*, Principal, Issac Litton High School, Nashville, Tennessee

INTERROGATORS:

R. H. Braun, Principal, High School, Urbana, Illinois

Madison W. Breland, Principal, High School, Greenwood, South Carolina

Richard H. Williams, Principal, High School, Burlingame, California

Summary of the presentation made by **LESTER W. NELSON**

A SCHOOL drop-out is one who leaves school before completing high school or before completing some recognized program of education at the secondary-school level. The number of young people who will become drop-outs during the course of the present academic year is estimated at 900,000—almost one million. The projection of this figure for the present decade indicates a total drop-out of at least 10,000,000—a figure which would reach as high as 12,000,000. This is a massive statistic and it dramatizes a monumental problem. No informed citizen, no enlightened educator, and no leader in the public or private sectors of our society can view this prospect and its related problems, both causative and resultant, without sharing a deep and growing concern. In a discussion paper, prepared for a one-day invitational Conference on "Drop-Outs and Youth Employment," held last October, Adam Yarmolinsky stated three bases for this concern: (1) "The proposition that every American is entitled to a full-time high-school education"; (2) "The frustration, lack of purpose, and sense of failure that leads the average drop-out to quit school, usually as soon as he reaches the school-leaving age"; (3) "The difficulty that drop-outs experience in obtaining satisfactory or regular employment in a job market where unskilled labor is increasingly a distress item, and teenagers seeking employment have an unemployment rate twice as high as that of any other age group."

Rapidly accelerating changes are taking place in our population and labor force. The most rapid growth in our total population is occurring in the group of youth attaining working age. "During this decade," according to A. W. Motley, Director of Bureau of Labor Standards, "these youth will account for nearly one half of the labor force growth." Of the 26,000,000 new young workers entering the labor force in the 60's, at least 30 per cent, or some 7,500,000, will not have had a high-school

Lester W. Nelson is Associate Program Director, Fund for the Advancement of Education, 477 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

education. Of these, 2,500,000 will have completed only the eighth grade or less.

The kinds of jobs into which the labor force growth must be inducted, will be increasingly professional, technical, office, and sales jobs. Also the demand for skilled craftsmen will increase. These are precisely the occupational areas requiring the most educational and training. In the professional and technical fields, the present average of educational attainment is 16.2 years and, in the clerical and sales fields, it is 12.5 years—again, according to the Bureau of Labor Standards. The clear and inescapable conclusion must be that the school drop-out is increasingly a potentially unemployed individual and, even more central a cause for concern, he is potentially unemployable in our increasingly technological and highly specialized society.

Another aspect of the problem and one which justifies acute concern is the increasing concentration of the problem in the major centers of urbanization. It is said that, in some of our larger American cities, the drop-out rate is 50 per cent and, in the poorer blighted gray areas of these cities where, typically, one finds heavy congestion and concentration of mobile, migrant, culturally different children, the drop-out rate reaches 75 per cent.

The selected and spotted figures I have cited reveal the quantitative base and extent of the problem. Identification of the problem, however, is not the same thing as identifying the causes thereof, recognizing the crucial and agonizing results which flow therefrom or, most importantly, developing increasingly effective solutions for the problem.

What are the identifiable causes for drop-outs. Since time does not permit more than a listing of some of these, I shall not attempt to be exhaustive or discursive.

- Cultural differentiation and deprivation
- Lack of individual motivation as this relates to schooling
- High level mobility and migrancy, resulting in broken or discontinuous opportunity for schooling
- Lack of family encouragement and reinforcement
- Mental retardation and intellectual limitations
- Unfavorable environmental conditions
- Linguistic deficiencies and significantly low attainment in reading and skills of communication
- Low levels of aspiration and unrealistic expectations concerning future life roles.

The boy or girl whose progress in school is not satisfying to himself is likely to feel he does not belong in school. From lack of satisfaction to indifference to hostility to overtly anti-social behavior to drop-out to unemployment or worse—this is a typical progression which can be traced in countless cases and to the reinforcement of which, the conditions obtaining in the gray areas of our cities, are admirably, though not deliberately, designed.

This brings us full circle round to the stark reality that the problem of drop-outs is not solely, if indeed it is mainly, the problem for responsibility of the schools alone. It is an American problem, a national problem, a problem whose roots are in our total society. There are among us, of whom the speaker is one, those who fervently believe the problem cannot be solved on a purely local basis nor, indeed, by the schools alone on either a local, regional, or national basis. Nothing less than a major mobilization of all the relevant public and private agencies will suffice to cope with the problem. Nor, it must be added, can any of us as citizens, merit a comfortable conscience by perceiving it as somebody else's problem to solve.

That which the schools can do, they should be about doing—and it also deserves to be added that no school in America can justify the luxury of saying either that it is doing all that can be done or that there is nothing it can do. Increasingly, there are resources and ways by which early identification of potential drop-outs can be made. Increasingly, there are promising new efforts which schools are making. Increasingly, there are practices and methods by which aspiration levels of individuals may be raised and motivation may be reinforced. Lack of effort may be a lack of perception or a reflection of indifference, but we cannot afford the indulgence of rationalizing our inertia. Though the schools alone cannot do the job, they have a deep commitment and responsibility to provide leadership and to share with other sectors of community leadership the responsibility for action.

In conclusion, one may well reflect on the fact that one of every five Americans presently lives in one or another of our great cities. Approximately a fifth of our total national elementary- and secondary-school population attends a school in one of these same cities. Of this fifth of our elementary- and secondary-school population, approximately one fifth belongs to a culturally differentiated, educationally retarded minority group and, characteristically, they live in the poorest housing, suffer the greatest congestion, are exposed to the highest adult crime, produce the highest level of youth delinquency, and face the lowest level of economic upgrading and mobility. To say that these problems, as they relate to and induce drop-outs, are uniquely the problems of our schools or of the cities themselves is utter failure to see the problem. The problems are educational and cultural and social and economic and political. They must be dealt with concurrently on all fronts—a kind of effort America has not yet begun to make "for real."

And what if we fail or refuse to make the effort? It may be well to remind ourselves that, in the well-established, ordered modern societies of our day, the most violent, eruptive, and revolutionary upheavals are being supported strongly by a young and oftentimes youth-led population and their manifestations are dramatically to be found in the great cities. Both the art of demagoguery and the discernment of opportunity combined when Mr. Castro deliberately chose a gray area of America's greatest city for his domicile while attending the sessions of the General Assembly on the banks of the East River.

Summary of the presentation made by PAUL R. HUNT

THE Detroit Public School's Job Upgrading Program for unemployed, non-graduated youth 16-20 years of age is not a solution to Detroit's youth employment problem. It is, however, the solution to some of the employment problems of Detroit's least employable youth. The drop-out who does not find or is not able to hold a job is in real trouble. He is uncomfortable within himself and generates discomforts for the society around him. He has failed in his primary role, that of being a student, and is experiencing difficulty assuming the only desirable alternate role society permits—that being paid employment.

Job upgrading, a guidance program in the most accurate definition of the term, generates an atmosphere for the drop-out to enter into where he has the time and the opportunity to take a look at himself, pick up the loose ends, and start moving in a positive direction toward employment. The Job Upgrading Center is not just a room with a teacher. In combination with well-equipped facilities and a skilled guidance oriented teacher, the total resources of the community are brought in focus to aid in helping the young person to become employable and find employment.

Through a life-adjustment approach, *i.e.*, utilizing health resources, caring for personal needs, providing on-the-job training in the actual work-a-day world, and assuring prolonged contact with stable adults both professional and non-professional, the drop-out can become more employable. As a result he demonstrates change in his general appearance, his ability to present himself for employment, knowledge and practice in good work habits plus a more realistic occupational image and self concept. Having had, in many cases, the first successful work experience of his life and having earned his first dollar, this new entrant into the labor market is an employable, and desirable worker.

Not all drop-outs require Job Upgrading. In fact, our program is selective from the standpoint it searches out those who fit the criteria of being the least employable in the particular area where the Job Upgrading Center is located.

No community is proud of its drop-out ratio regardless of how small. No community can be proud of the unemployed young people who roam its streets. If drop-outs are not employable as a result of health, emotional maturity, education, and experience, then it continues to be the responsibility of the total community to work together to place their names on the side of the ledger marked "employable youth."

Paul R. Hunt is Counselor in Charge of the Job Upgrading Program, Department of Placement, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan.

Summary of the presentation made by ELI E. COHEN

IN RECENT years the schools have been asked to carry a growing burden because of the weakening of the family and other community institutions. The schools have had to take on added concerns in relation to preparing children for adult life in an increasingly complex world; teaching the three R's no longer suffices. But if schools are to carry this greater load, they will need a commensurate increase in resources.

A case in point is the drop-out problem. In one sense, the number of young people who quit school before graduation each year represents a failure on the part of schools to influence and stimulate reluctant students. Yet many of these students may have been doomed to drop out even before they enrolled in school. They come from families and neighborhoods where books are not considered important and where quitting school at an early age is a normal pattern.

Even with these youth, the schools might succeed if they were to provide intensive remedial and guidance services in the earlier grades. But these services are expensive, and often no money is available to pay for them. In the later grades, a combination work-and-study program might interest these students enough to keep them in school—or at least prepare them better for employment when they do leave. Many drop-outs quit because they feel they do not belong in school. This might be remedied by valuable socialization experience made available to them by youth-serving agencies.

The drop-out situation is a community problem, and schools need community help. Among the community allies that the schools must cultivate are employers and unions in a position to provide much needed after-school and summer-vacation, work-experience opportunities. Employment agencies can also help, as can social agencies, which provide a variety of therapeutic services for individuals and families. In addition, service clubs and civic groups are in a position to participate in, and help finance, special projects, and the cooperation of parents is crucial. Finally, community-wide citizen support is required to obtain adequate budgets for the facilities and services needed to prevent early school-leaving.

Recently, this kind of cooperation has been growing between schools and community groups. Social workers have been used successfully to visit homes and work with parents in one large eastern city. A number of communities are experimenting with the use of part-time employment as an incentive for staying in school.

The National Committee on Employment of Youth has begun an interesting project in two communities. NCEY has helped organize community-wide committees representative of all interested groups and

Eli E. Cohen is Executive Secretary of the National Committee on Employment of Youth, 419 Park Avenue South, New York, New York.

organizations, including, of course, the schools. Right now these groups are studying their drop-outs, schools, community services, and opportunities in order to develop constructive services to aid youngsters who have already quit school as well as to help prevent others from dropping out. NCEY's objective is to build community cooperation and responsibility for assuring each youngster an opportunity to achieve his full potential.

This is a goal that must be high on every community's agenda. But action is needed today. Each year, the number of drop-outs will increase—if only because of the increased birthrate since the end of World War II. At the same time, automation is forcing employers to raise their hiring requirements. Thus, it is estimated that by 1965 there will be only two unskilled jobs available for every three school drop-outs.

The place to start a drop-out prevention program is within the schools. School officials need to be convinced that all students are important, even those in danger of quitting. They must also understand the need to take community groups into their confidence. Anything that will improve schools will help lower the drop-out rate. One important source for achieving improvement is the community.

WHAT SCHOOL POLICY FOR ADAPTING INSTRUCTION TO THE SLOW LEARNER?

CHAIRMAN: *C. B. Stewart*, Principal, Adkin High School, Kinston, North Carolina

INTERROGATORS:

W. H. Jenkins, Principal, High School, Decatur, Alabama

Barry Sutton, Principal, High School, Franklin, Tennessee

J. Marshall Swanson, Principal, Halifax County High School, South Boston, Virginia

Summary of the presentation made by R. T. JACOBSEN

ONE of the more pressing problems at the secondary-school level has been that of providing a realistic program for the slow learner; i.e., the student with low mental ability but who is not mentally retarded (generally IQ 75-90). These students are usually grouped into a general or practical program and may be within the lowest grouping in that program. Too often this grouping is heterogeneous and includes true slow learners with innate low mental ability, pseudo-slow learners due to a variety of emotional problems, discipline problems, and the academically

R. T. Jacobsen is Principal of Jonathan Dayton Regional High School, Springfield, New Jersey. Enrollment, 1,350.

disinterested. The academic program, more often than not, reflects a watered down version of a regular program with additional time in industrial arts and home economics. Instructional techniques and materials are usually the same offered to the regular students. The true slow learner has little opportunity for academic growth and school success within this type of program because he needs a different type of program with different instructional aims and techniques. The results of offering the slow learner a regular program may include: (1) early drop-out of slow learners possessing only minimal skills with no real occupational direction, (2) little academic growth because of the inability to profit from regular instruction and texts, and (3) increased discipline problems in school due to severe feelings of frustration and inadequacy engendered by a program in which they cannot be successful.

In order to alleviate the above situation, a four year district-wide program for the slow learner has been established at Jonathan Dayton Regional High School. It is called a core program because of its intent to provide a set core of educational experiences for slow learners in personal-social, academic, and vocational-areas.

The philosophy of the core program is, therefore, based upon the concept of meeting the unique needs of the slow learner; *i.e.*, providing a separate program whereby the slow learner can be successful in school. Success in school is equated with the accumulation of specific educational and vocational learning *via* concrete instructional techniques.

Students are initially selected for this program from eighth-grade classification test results. Those scoring low in group tests of reading and mental maturity are given individual psychological tests to verify proper functioning levels.

Those students whom the psychologist recommends for the program are interviewed with their parents. Parental consent and student accord are necessary before admission is granted. Students accepted to the program are tried for one year. At the conclusion of the year, the teachers and psychologist review the student's progress. If the team believes the student can progress adequately in a regular program, he may be scheduled for the regular program the following year (for all regular subjects or for part-regular and part-core program courses).

During the year, students who cannot learn in the regular classes are given individual psychological testing. Those diagnosed as true slow learners may be transferred to the core classes for part of or for their entire educational program. In this manner the scheduling is considered as extremely flexible.

The program of courses for the core program emphasizes academic growth, remedial instruction, and vocational exploration during the first two years. The third year is considered pivotal. During this year, the vocational emphasis increases with stress upon occupational study and selection. The courses in occupations and work-adjustment training lead to selection of an occupational endeavor which is learned on the job

in the fourth-year work-study program. The fourth-year work-study program is in reality a diversified occupations program under the direction of a specialized coordinator. Within this program the students are offered paid part-time work experience with the employer and school coordinator as supervisors. At the completion of the four-year program, the student has had academic and citizenship training as well as vocational study plus one year of part-time on-the-job training in a job of his choice. This training is realistic for the slow learner. With his high-school diploma and educational training, he should be in the most favorable position to take his place as a citizen, worker, and community member.

Summary of the presentation made by PAUL B. WAGNER

TEN years ago, this topic would have been, "Does Ability Grouping Contribute to the Quality of Instruction for all Students?" Today, to group or not to group is not the question. In our round with the critics, the criticism that smarted the most was this, "You are teaching to the middle group, the talented are neglected, the slow are dropping out." We all know that in a measure this was tragically true. If, the function of the public school is to develop scholarship, then we should tool up to achieve this objective.

The setting for my remarks will be a central high school, grades 9 through 12, including 1,900 boys and girls in a typical expanding American suburban community. More than half of the seniors plan to continue their education. This is referred to by many as a comprehensive high school.

The design for grouping in this school is basically a three step design—honors, regular, and basic. The scheme for grouping is flexible. The tracks are not rigid. The honors track includes advanced and honors classes. A student may qualify for one or more honors classes. The regular track includes the broad central part of the spectrum. One group in this central area is worth noting. This is the "Pe" group. These students have demonstrated high potential but low effort in junior high-school performance. These are under-motivated boys and girls who seem to have learned that they can get by without working very hard. These under-achievers are grouped in a section where they are challenged with a high-level academic program under the influence of high motivation techniques.

The basic track consists of three groups—special education, two-year terminal, and slow-learners. Of these, I will briefly describe the two-year terminal group. This group consists of below average, over-age boys and

P. B. Wagner is Principal of North Syracuse Central High School, North Syracuse, New York. Enrollment, 1,900.

girls who were about to fail at the ninth- or tenth-grade level. These were potential drop-outs. They were placed in a two-year terminal program with parent's consent. Theirs is a basic curriculum focused upon future employment. Their curriculum provides for work experience, opportunity in and out of school. A certificate is awarded for two years of successful performance.

The obvious results of this rather extensive grouping is not obscure. Students have had their sights lifted in honors and advanced classes, and have reached a scholarship level which was before unobtainable in high school. Good students in the general program achieve a new place of leadership within their group with its concomitant satisfaction. Students in the basic level are receiving basic and functional instruction. They are happier, and they are remaining in school longer, because classroom instruction is tailored to their needs. Every boy and girl needs to have the opportunity to be successful. This opportunity is within the reach of all, only when grouping provides this opportunity.

Summary of the presentation made by WERNER C. DIECKMANN

THE State of California is making extensive provision, through numerous special education programs, for individual difference among the two and a half million students attending its elementary and secondary schools. Physically and mentally handicapped students receive specialized instruction from specifically trained and credentialed teachers. These special programs are financed by the state through the application of the "excess cost principle" in rather adequate amounts. The State Legislature, now in session, will probably adopt legislation which will provide "excess costs" for special education programs for gifted students and another for emotionally disturbed children and youth.

The extreme slow learner, having an IQ range from 50 to 80, was provided a special education program in 1947 when all elementary school districts and unified school districts having over 900 A.D.A. in the elementary grades were required to organize and operate special training classes for educable mentally retarded students. Providing classes for these handicapped students in small districts is a direct responsibility of the county superintendent of schools. Ten years later the required program was extended to include secondary schools.

Despite the shortage of well-trained teachers, and limited knowledge of what learning experiences will produce optimum results, secondary schools in San Diego County have accepted the challenge and have developed a number of promising practices.

Werner C. Dieckmann is Assistant Superintendent, Special Services, San Diego County Department of Education, San Diego, California.

The Grossmont Union High School District, after experimenting with special training classes in several of its six high schools, recently moved all such classes to one centrally located high school. A team of able and enthusiastic teachers and a coordinator of special education have developed a modified academic program balanced with physical education, homemaking for girls, industrial arts for boys, crafts, art, and music. All instruction in the academic areas is given in the special training classes. Students who need the security of small group instruction remain with the special teachers for enrichment activities while the greater number of more able students are integrated in regular classes for two periods daily. Careful assignment of students to regular classes and orientation of teachers are important factors that will assure the success of the program feature.

Orientation of parents, through parent study clubs began years ago in the elementary schools, is another feature of the Grossmont program. Understanding the student's strengths and limitations and how the high-school training class program proposes to help each student is being achieved in well-attended meetings for parents.

Supervised work experience for educable mentally retarded students is a major innovation that promises extensive returns for the time and money invested. A Grossmont student has the opportunity in his junior year to choose a vocational work program designed to introduce him to a real life job opportunity. Every effort is made to analyze the student's interests, strengths, and limitations and to guide him into a desirable employment field. If the initial choice and placement is satisfactory, the student will be given every opportunity to become a competent worker through on-the-job experience, balanced with daily class instruction built around the problems students report to their special training class teachers.

Students who are to work in the cafeteria will need to have a food handler's health certificate. This requirement becomes the subject of class instruction designed to acquaint the student with why the state regulation exists and how a health certificate may be secured. Similar instruction is organized as needed for full understanding of child labor laws, worker's compensation, social security, *etc.* Another example might be the review of simple fractions and appropriate drill when a student reports having difficulty understanding the gardener's reference to the composition of a given planting mixture.

In-school work experience placement is generally with the gardening crew, cafeteria, or bus maintenance garage of the school system. Wages of 50 cents per hour are paid during a limited on-the-job training period. Thereafter, the student is paid the appropriate minimum wage. Desirable job placement opportunities within the community are arranged and promoted by a full-time work experience coordinator serving both regular and special training class students. At this writing, mentally retarded students have had their greatest success working on gardening or nursery



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The pages are either missing or the pagination is incorrect.

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HOW IMPROVE THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Aaron H. Lauchner*, Consultant, Florida Central Academy, Sorrento, Florida

INTERROGATORS:

Henry W. Ford, Principal, Skokie Junior High School, Winnetka, Illinois

Edwin C. Mustard, Principal, Amherst Central Junior High School, Snyder, New York

John F. Stafford, Principal, Patrick Henry Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by WILBUR C. OLMSTEAD

THE role of the principal in improving instruction is perhaps the greatest responsibility that a principal has, yet there are more inroads upon his time as it relates to this responsibility than upon any other of his functions. We would all agree that the curriculum is the backbone of any school. This strength determines the quality which a given school is capable of producing. There are many ways in which curriculum may be improved. The way in which an individual school goes about meeting this problem depends largely upon its age, size, growth, and community background.

The Herricks Junior High School is typical of many schools in a large metropolitan suburban area. Growth in the past ten years has been extremely rapid, making it difficult to keep pace with the needs. As a matter of fact, many schools including our own are out-grown. Whenever there is sudden growth, there are many demands upon a principal's time, such as additional housing, additional facilities, equipment, materials, and personnel.

A major factor in improving the curriculum of any school is securing and maintaining a thoroughly trained and competent professional staff. For the past several years, principals of the secondary schools in this district have carried on a program of teacher recruiting, visiting twenty or more colleges each spring. This has enabled the school to be staffed by better trained and more experienced people, representing a greater variety of colleges from many areas of our country. This diversification permits greater breadth and understanding of educational philosophy in implementing present courses of study and preparing new ones.

Another device used to improve instruction is to utilize department chairmen. At the present time these chairmen are given a reduced teaching load, but no additional remuneration. While department chairmen

Wilbur C. Olmstead is Principal of Herricks Junior High School, New Hyde Park, New York.

have certain routine duties, such as textbook inventory, and ordering of department materials, their prime responsibility is to improve instruction through meetings, classroom visitation, revision of courses of study, developing study units, and conducting research. One of the functions of the department chairman is to have broad plans made and available for each teacher, as a guide, for the first six weeks of school. The chairman also reviews plan books periodically and approves final examinations. A ten-page pamphlet has been prepared to assist teachers in the development of test and examinations.

The chairman submits to the principal a written report of each teacher once a year, and, at the end of the year, submits a summary of department accomplishments as well as an outline of the goals for the coming year. In this particular school, all subject matter areas are set up on a strictly departmental basis. This has come about as a result of not being able to secure sufficient qualified and properly certificated teachers for the block-time type of program which, ideally, is perhaps the best for the junior high-school type of organization.

Another method of improving instruction has been to utilize committees to study problems particular to the school. Currently, a faculty committee is studying the desirability of broadening the student grouping from the present heterogeneous method to something between the heterogeneous and homogeneous method. Remember, there are 1,260 pupils in this school.

Another committee is studying the manner in which this school might utilize teacher "aides," team-teaching, and teaching tools. The faculty feels that it is often possible to rush into that which is new and relatively untried, only to discover that the problems are more acute than they were before, yet they do not wish to overlook anything which may be of assistance in teaching boys and girls. Still another committee is studying the teacher load. Every school is faced with the problem of having to determine whether or not extra pay should be given for extra duties. It has been resolved at Herricks, by the establishment of a teacher load program, that a normal teacher load is based upon a seven-period day—five periods of teaching, one period of planning, and one period for study hall or other school duties. It is expected that a teacher shall reserve one night a week for faculty or department meetings, another night to help classes, and a third night for club activity. When a teacher exceeds these basic responsibilities, that teacher is paid additional money based upon a pre-arranged schedule. A teacher may earn as much as \$12,500, or as little as \$250.

There are many varied methods and devices whereby instruction may be improved. To go through each individual instance, such as class load, grouping, instructional materials center, developing special instruction for advanced enrichment or special courses, philosophy and objectives of the school, *etc.*, would be rather uninteresting.

In conclusion, I should like to mention one more point. Principals are certainly aware of the evaluated criteria developed and used in accrediting secondary schools. The latest volume has just been published, and, if a school wishes to re-examine its program, this volume can be of tremendous help to the departments in analyzing the curricular offerings. It is a study that should not be done lightly or quickly. This re-examination of program will immediately indicate the gains made in recent years and pin point the current weaknesses. Here is a project which the principal's advisory cabinet, composed of department heads, can be of great value.

Summary of the presentation made by HERMAN M. WESSEL

BECAUSE of the additional routine and administrative detail which have become the burden of a school principal today, due to the rapid growth of school populations and the increasing size of our schools, it is important to re-emphasize the principal's role of leadership in the instructional program. Many kinds of curriculum specialists are now being brought in to school systems to offer assistance to the principal, but the responsibility is definitely his, and it cannot be farmed out without risk of breaking up the wholeness of the school.

It is necessary to ask how changes in instruction can be brought about so that they will result in improvement. Any changes contemplated must be achieved in a general atmosphere which only the principal can create, establish, and administer. For the principal himself must be willing to depart from customary procedures that so easily become rooted in a school and have their tendency toward rigidity. He must have a flexibility that will encourage teachers to try new, sometimes "off-beat" approaches. He must have the kind of faith in his staff that will stimulate and allow teachers to use freedom to experiment with the untried, in both content and method. But no principal can initiate changes without the cooperation of the teachers in whose hands such changes in instruction will ultimately rest. Any instructional change which is imposed from the top—whether by the school principal, curriculum specialists, or top administrative officials—will quite likely find itself blocked at the classroom teacher's desk because of distrust and delay, and the insistence that "it won't work."

Changes in instructional programs may come about, too, at the initiative of interested, creative, and adventurous teachers—adventurous in the

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best sense of the word. Such a teacher was responsible for initiating the "block-of-time" program in our school. It is almost impossible to describe the *esprit de corps* and the pride which developed among these teachers, who were stepping out in new pathways and actually welcoming the unpredictability of what they might achieve.

Changes in programs are frequently forced upon schools by trends occurring over the country. One feels a pressure to get "on the bandwagon" so to speak. Trends and bandwagons should not be followed for their own sake—but they do indicate a movement which cannot be ignored. Such trends as the earlier introduction of the study of foreign languages, the earlier introduction of science, the newer concepts in the teaching of mathematics—these as well as the use of teaching machines, the use of television for large group instruction—are indicators of what we must face in the direction of proposed improvements in instruction.

Changes such as these, which call not only for the introduction of new subject matter into our schools, and new types of school organization, call also for new and different education of the teachers who will be responsible for implementing the changes in the schools—and their administration and the school boards—working with Foundations and other national groups that are promoting such opportunities. It is good that aid for such re-education is forthcoming—as we have already been experiencing—but why not such aid for the teachers of the humanities, the social studies, and the fine and creative arts, in the hope that changes in the instruction within those areas too would make for real improvement in our program?

No program for the improvement of instruction should fail to accept the challenge which is presented to schools at all levels—the education of mentally superior children, the *gifted* as some prefer to name them. For many reasons, their most effective education has been neglected.

Finally any change in our instructional program must have early, continual, and repeated evaluations. In the early days of our block-of-time, we provided for weekly meetings of all the teachers who were involved in that program. At those meetings the teachers exchanged their experiences in handling the new material, in presenting their individual and mutual problems of motivation of the pupils, and even of their attempts to integrate some of the learning experiences in the two heretofore separate and distinct learning areas. Although now in its fifth year, the teachers in this program are still scheduled for weekly meetings for such continuing evaluation of themselves and their achievements, as well as that of their pupils. Our experimental classes for the teaching of mathematics to the superior pupils were evaluated not only by ourselves, but by our consultants from the Horace-Mann-Lincoln Institute. These pupils, now in the tenth grade of our senior high school, are still being followed.

I conclude with a word of warning. Changes in program, changes in which there is hope for improvement of instruction, must be accepted with a faith in our own subjective professional judgment. For the present,

this may be the best if not the only method of evaluation available to us. To use the testing materials devised for other forms of instructional programs may well inject a limitation upon the creative effort of pupils as well as teachers. This could stifle, instead of free, the teachers to use novel materials and novel methods. We need to trust what has been called our professional intuition and not be apologetic in saying: "I believe." At the same time, along with our application in making these changes effective we should continue to develop new evaluating instruments, more in keeping with our new objective and our new materials.

Summary of the presentation made by **FAT WOOSLEY**

IN THE junior high school where excellence is expected, respected, and rewarded, the teacher must play an important role in curriculum development and improvement just as he must play a most important part in the total educational program. The wise administrator must select skillful, talented teachers and guide and encourage them to grow while teaching. Since curriculum building requires ample time as well as recognized ability, it is the responsibility of the administration to provide time necessary for both major and minor curriculum revisions. Teachers and other curriculum committee members cannot read assiduously, think clearly, discuss intelligently, and write understandingly when they are concerned with the multiplicity of tasks of daily teaching. So, it is necessary to provide the teacher with ample time outside of the school day to do these many tasks involved in curriculum development.

One method of doing this is to organize the staff into departments and let the chairmen direct the preliminary work leading to a workshop. Valuable curriculum efforts can be made only when the committee members are free to work for a sustained period of time, at least for four to six weeks. This makes the summer months as the ideal time for curriculum building. The school system should provide the salaries for the professional and clerical participants in the summer workshop as well as the necessary curriculum materials. A successful summer workshop requires a great deal of preparatory effort on the part of all. If a new program is to gain acceptance, every teacher must be involved; and, in most instances, they cannot all be invited to participate in the summer workshop. But their interests can be elicited through a planned study program based on such things as test results, follow-up of school's graduates, examination of curriculum bulletins from other systems, and reading of professional literature. The personnel of the curriculum committee should include teachers, administrators, curriculum consultants, college people and lay citizens.

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All curriculum development would not cease from September to May since curriculum making is continuous and there is need for planning ways of implementing the curriculum bulletins. Our secondary schools allow for this implementation by providing school time for faculty meetings each week by dismissing schools an hour early each Wednesday.

Members of such lay groups as parent-teachers associations and dads clubs, as well as members of the board of education, should be asked to contribute their thinking to the curriculum improvement. In almost every community, there are professional people, scientists, and lay leaders who are eager to lend their competencies to curriculum improvement. Once involved in a school activity, these people often continue as useful resource people. Although judicious selection of such personnel is advised, by and large, they are not the kind of people seeking to gain control of the school. These laymen can be productive members of the committee. Their wide range of experiences should assist materially in developing a suitable curriculum for your school community. Their ideas may be secured through opinionnaires, group discussions, and by individual interviews.

Also, we should involve the pupils of our junior high schools in this curriculum planning. This can be done by having them read and evaluate the new textbooks before adoption and by having them assist in the selection of supplemental materials. The better pupils will give you valuable assistance on this. Pupil discussion groups can bring out their needs, desires, and educational goals.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN FLEXIBLE DAILY TIME SCHEDULES

CHAIRMAN: *Theo. F. Hotz*, Principal, Balboa High School, Balboa Heights, Canal Zone

INTERROGATORS:

Howard E. Miller, Principal, Junior High School, Faribault, Minnesota

Joseph G. Newlin, Principal, Memorial High School, Cedar Grove, New Jersey

Dale M. Smith, Principal, North Brandywine Junior High School, Coatesville, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT N. BUSH

NO SERIOUS disagreement exists on the desirability of, and even the necessity for, developing more flexible high-school schedules of classes. The essential question is one of *how*. A compelling logic forces the conclusion that it is wise to vary time and frequency of class meetings

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and the size of classes according to the nature of the subject, the type of instruction, and the ability and the interests of the pupils. Pressures to emphasize foreign languages, science, and mathematics are seriously limiting attention to such subjects, for example, as the visual, the performing, and the practical arts. If they are not to be forced entirely out of the curriculum, some flexibility in the schedule seems to be necessary. Furthermore, with competent teachers in short supply, we are forced to use them more wisely than before. Hence, the necessity arises to arrange the time-schedule in schools so that the qualified persons available can be used in a variety of ways. Noting that flexibility of scheduling is practiced at the elementary-school and the collegiate levels, and in foreign secondary schools, we can no longer legitimately claim that flexibility is not possible in the American high school, if we would but loosen our strait jacket of units, credits, and marks.

Everywhere we turn today, we find proposals for educational change and experimentation confronted with the statement. "Yes, but it can not be scheduled"; or more plaintively, "How can it be scheduled?" Such questions are raised not to block progress, but rather in a spirit of inquiry, if not bafflement.

The problem appears to be twofold: both facets capable of solution but neither likely to be solved tomorrow. The first part of the problem is: for what do we want flexibility? Precisely, what do we want educationally? It is necessary to think through those educational problems confronting us that flexibility might help to solve—not in large and vague, but in precise and specific terms. The second question is: how to build a schedule, once having determined what it is that we want. This latter is a technical problem that ought to be capable of solution with the help of modern electronic computers.

Attention in this discussion will be devoted primarily to the educational—the first of the two problems. It may be of passing interest to report that, as a result of preliminary work underway at Stanford University in a cooperative effort between the School of Education and the Industrial Engineering Department, supported in part by a Ford Foundation Fund for the Advancement of Education Grant, we are beginning to have some confidence that we may be able to solve the technical problem of using computers to generate master time schedules for schools, once the schools know what they want. Within two years we may be able to write a program for a computer that will enable a high school to record what courses pupils want to take, the capabilities of the available teaching staff and available rooms, and then to have the computer formulate the best possible master schedule to accommodate these requirements, and at the same time to list each pupil's program, each teacher's schedule, room assignments, and class lists—all within the space of a few days at costs which local school districts could afford. If this can be done, it may eliminate the necessity for the school to have a principal, vice principal, or registrar, but it will surely make these posts much more attractive!

A more technical report of this aspect of the problem is to be published in the Spring 1961 issue of *School Review*.

The more serious of the two basic problems is for teachers, counselors, and administrators to answer the educational question of why we want flexible schedules. What is to be achieved educationally? For purposes of discussion, four educational requirements that flexible schedules might enable us to meet are proposed.

First, we need to provide all students with a more continuous study of all basic subjects in the curriculum over a longer period of time. As matters now stand, the only subject that is continuously studied during the entire span of high-school years by all pupils is physical education, followed closely by English. This is too limiting. We are now trying to find ways in which other important fields such as mathematics, science, and the arts may also be studied continuously and rigorously. This does not mean that all pupils are to study the same curriculum, with everything required, but rather that each of the basic studies, while given continuous attention, will be studied with greater or lesser concentrations, and with varying intensity at different times, according to the needs of the pupil. Present inflexibility in scheduling seriously limits the meeting of this requirement.

Second, all four of the basic types of instruction and learning ought to be undertaken in every course, in a balance that is appropriate for that particular course and group of pupils. The four basic types of instructions are : individual study, small-group instruction, laboratory work, and large-group instruction. Greater flexibility will be required to permit each of these important parts of instruction to take place within the framework of any class in the school.

Third, flexibility is necessary to permit teachers to work in the subjects, and parts thereof, where they are most prepared and talented, to use their talents at the highest levels of which they are capable, and to reserve less demanding aspects of the teaching function for those with more appropriate types and levels of training. This means applying to teaching the principle of division of labor which has invaded every other scientific field and has enabled us to increase so greatly the efficient use of the available trained scientific manpower. Flexibility far beyond that now typically practiced will be required lest we continue indefensible waste by requiring all teachers to perform all functions, with little regard for their talents and their experiences.

In the *fourth* instance, it is necessary to have increased flexibility in the manner of organizing and conducting our schools to enable groups of students whose abilities and talents are sufficiently different from other groups to follow programs of studies in a particular subject that are appropriate for them and that will enable them to obtain the maximum benefit possible from the study of that subject, and that will enable each one of them to achieve a better balanced education.

These are four requirements that must be met if our secondary educational system, which has been developed to serve all young persons in our society, is not to succumb to the evils of mass production, and if the talents of each person are to approach their potential. To surmount the obstacles before us will demand of all a vision, competence, and creative effort of the most demanding sort. Nothing less will suffice. But I am confident evidence of what is happening across the country today suggests that in this too, as in so many facets of American life, we shall not be found wanting.

Summary of the presentation made by R. H. WHITNALL

THERE are as many concepts of a flexible time schedule as there are different time schedules in practice. The eight or nine period schedule with periods of 40 minutes is probably one of the originators of flexible schedules since classes can meet five, seven, or ten times per week. Some schools have the entire day divided into 20-minute units and multiples of twenty minutes.

In the assessment of the flexible daily time schedule, I feel that too often administrators switch from one to another without considering and evaluating the fundamental concepts of time scheduling. Therefore, I wish to offer four fundamental concepts that should be kept in mind.

Concept Number One. A good schedule must provide and administer the kinds of learning experiences needed to implement the purposes for which the school exists.

1. Flexibility of a schedule helps meet the needs of the students in the electives offered and allows for experimentation.

2. The schedule must take care of the required subjects which for the most part cover citizenship rights and responsibilities, fundamental tools, health, social ideals, and attitudes.

3. The schedule should permit the types of instruction and activity program needed to achieve the objectives of the school.

4. The schedule must make possible the best educational program for each individual pupil, but must provide the best advantage to the greatest number of pupils.

Concept Number Two. A good schedule provides maximum use of all the human resources in the school.

1. Each teacher's assignment should be consistent with his training, talents, and interest.

2. It is important that the schedule load be within the teacher's physical and mental capacity, making it possible to relax.

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3. The schedule should, as far as possible, enable the administration and the guidance staff to perform their duties most effectively.

Concept Number Three. A good schedule provides for the maximum use of all the physical resources of the school.

1. The standard classrooms should be effectively and intelligently assigned and used to meet the physical setup in each room.

2. The schedule should make the maximum possible use of all the specialized units of the plant—band room, cafeteria, and others that normally are not in use every period. If this is done, the program can be enriched when the need arises by using this extra space.

3. Included in the physical resources of the school is the audio-visual equipment, and the schedule should make it possible to get the maximum use of these teaching aids.

4. With the bumper crop of students in the eighth grade now, we must keep in mind whether the flexible schedule will handle more or less students for the classrooms available.

Concept Number Four. A good schedule will facilitate an effective guidance program.

1. The most important first step is the right atmosphere which will condition a desire on the part of the students for guidance, making them receptive.

2. It will make guidance a gradual and continuous process within the schedule.

3. The schedule must respect subject choices of student, parent, and adviser.

The flexible time schedule is so complex that it is necessary for the high-school principal to have a punch card or electronic system to use to construct the daily time schedule of classes that fits the needs of his school best.

Summary of the presentation made by HOLMES WEBB

VARIOUS degrees of flexibility have been tried successfully in schools ranging from the small six-year school to the large three-year high school. As has been indicated by other speakers, there are numerous approaches used to achieve flexible schedules. Whether the schedule is a "floating period" type, the "modular," a "multiple period," or some other plan, does not seem to be an important problem if it meets the needs of the school using it. A greater problem in adopting the flexible schedule is the human factor.

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Before introduction of a flexible schedule, the possible effects of the change, positive and negative, on the people affected must be carefully considered; otherwise, the values expected may never be enjoyed. Such change may seem drastic and alarming to teachers in some schools. The feeling of security under old and familiar plans may not be given up easily by teachers. The principal will need to be aware of the customs and traditions peculiar to his school as he considers plans for change. He must work to secure the interest and cooperation of teachers in studying possible plans, realizing that change often is made "over the dead bodies of teachers." He will need their ideas as well as their enthusiasm. The cooperation of teachers in planning may enable the principal to foresee and make provision for some problems that might otherwise be overlooked. Values in established plans should not be lightly swept aside or violated by a principal bent on an idea. Shared faculty planning may prevent chaos, confusion, and consternation.

A few students in most secondary schools have the energy and ability to complete assignments or courses in a fraction of the time required by other members of their classes. Providing these students with work to challenge their ability can be exhilarating for students and teachers. Students may find the freedom in flexible schedules for individual work in laboratories for foreign language, science, typing, reading, music, and a dozen or more other areas. But the flexibility sought gives a complexity to planning that makes demands on principal, counselor, and teacher. Individual schedules of students must be planned carefully. Variations in schedules must be communicated clearly and in time to avoid costly frustrations. Variations in time allotments between major and minor subjects may leave an impression with students, teachers, and parents that some subjects are more worth while than others. Although this may be true, proving it could be an unhappy experience for both principal and teacher.

Extreme flexibility can result in lack of sufficient pattern and consequent educational loss. Ardent advocates of flexible schedules have asked, "Why shouldn't a girl in homemaking remain in the kitchen until her pie is cooked?" An obvious answer is that when she gets to English in the middle of a film of *Macbeth*, "her goose will be cooked." But flexible scheduling can be achieved happily by a faculty that studies the needs and possibilities in its school, that has clear communication and a co-operative approach to planning, that is realistic and excited about providing a better program for students.

HOW CAN WE MAKE THE BEST USE OF THE TIME AND ENERGIES OF THE GUIDANCE COUNSELORS WE NOW HAVE?

CHAIRMAN: *Thomas J. Jenkins*, Principal, Brandywine High School, Wilmington, Delaware

INTERROGATORS:

Joseph E. Barber, Head, School-College Relations Section, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Department of the Navy, Washington, D. C.

Mrs. Mary B. DuVal, Principal, Junior High School, Camden, South Carolina

Andrew E. Roper, Principal, High School, Middletown, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by MACK J. SPEARS

SEVERAL assumptions seem implicit in the concern for making better utilization of the time and energies of the guidance counselors we now have. It might be pertinent to our discussion to mention at least three of them. *First*, we can assume that guidance counselors are important personnel in the secondary-school organization; *second*, we can assume that we have an insufficient number of counselors to provide adequately all of the counseling services needed by high-school youth; and, *third*, it seems reasonable to assume that, despite the shortage in the number of counselors, we can effect more efficient utilization of the time and energies of the counselors which we now have in our schools.

The guidance counselor as we now know him is a relative newcomer in the school organization. After guidance took some systematized form during the 1920's, we developed some concepts regarding the number of counselors needed to perform services based upon the ratio of five hundred (500) counselees to one counselor.

As secondary-school administrators became more sensitive to the needs of youth and as they became more aware of the importance of guidance in assisting young people in the quest to know themselves, to recognize their problems, to analyze their problems, and to select appropriate solutions to these problems, attention was focused upon the selection of personnel to serve as guidance counselors in proportion to the magic ratio. However, the lack of professionally trained counselors and insufficient funds have been major obstacles.

While it has been difficult to staff the schools with counselors in keeping with the originally established ratio of counselees to counselors, the problem became more acute when attention was focused upon a new ideal ratio with the publication of the Conant Report, *The American High School Today*. Conant recommends one counselor to every two

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hundred fifty to three hundred pupils. Certainly a reduction in the work load of a counselor should facilitate more effective results from the counseling process. However, one must not get the impression that effective counseling is purely a quantitative problem.

There can be little quarrel with the spirit of the Conant's recommendation, and, in the distant future, we may endeavor to increase the number of counseling personnel to approach the goal recommended. It seems that for the present we must concentrate upon another approach to the problem. We must attack the problem qualitatively. Our attention must become focused upon improving the quality of what we are now doing in counseling. We must in some way achieve better utilization of the time and energies of the guidance counselors we now have. The challenge is that of accomplishing this objective.

I doubt that there are any ready made answers to the problem which can be applied with equal effectiveness in every school or in every school system. We can make a few suggestions which may hold some merit in themselves, or which at least may stimulate the advancement of other ideas. The very nature of this topic suggests that it is the responsibility of the administrator to initiate procedures for better utilization of the time and energies of counselors. It is advisable to indicate that the extent of improvement will be in proportion to the administrator's acceptance of guidance as an integral part of the educational program, as well as his willingness to recognize the possibilities for effectuating improvement.

A second step which is essential for advancing the quality of the service rendered by counselors is that of influencing them to accept the concept of their role as one which requires the kind and degree of sophistication necessary to attract pupils to the counselors in the search for answers to the pupils' various problems. The time and energies of counselors can be greatly wasted unless they have an adequate perspective regarding their function.

Counselors should be professionally prepared both substantively and procedurally. Counselors must be equipped with a body of knowledge from which they can draw information requisitioned by pupils. At the same time, counselors must have the art for working with youth in a manner which engenders confidence and respect from the pupils and the other members of the staff. It is the responsibility of the administrator to see that the counselors have developed the skills which are so important in promoting desirable counselor-counselee relationships.

A continuing program of in-service education is invaluable for assisting counselors in discovering and refining means for making better use of their time and energies. The in-service education should be tailored to the needs of the individual school or to the needs of the specific school system. However, the program should include provisions for drawing upon the resources of the neighboring universities for professional assistance. Additionally, provisions should be made to develop familiarity with all other community resources, the knowledge of which would be essen-

tial for rounding out the program of education for pupils. The point which I am really attempting to establish is that the counselor who is adequately prepared for his task can pursue it more efficiently thus being able to extend his services to more pupils.

We can increase the efficiency of counselors by providing clerical assistance to perform many of the routine clerical duties now performed by counselors. Valuable time and energies of the professionally trained personnel should not be wasted in performing duties which could be performed by a clerk. This is a matter which deserves our attention.

Another factor to which we could well afford to give consideration is the elimination of duplication in the kinds of records which we maintain for our pupils. It may be possible to conserve time and energies by eliminating duplication without sacrificing the maintenance of essential data needed for a good guidance program. We may be able to extend the services of our counselors by revising our records in order to make them more meaningful because they can be more efficiently interpreted.

The final suggestion for helping to achieve our goal concerns the developing of a better understanding of the role of the counselor by the classroom teacher. If the teacher knows and appreciates the importance of the function of the counselor, he can assist the pupils in more effectively availing themselves of the counselor's services. A team spirit should be promoted between the counselor and the classroom teacher.

Summary of the presentation made by GRANT W. JENSEN

SECONDARY school administrators continue to search for two effective items: (1) personnel who have just the right amount of experience, the "proper" kind of personality, the necessary wisdom to make good judgments, seasoned with the best educational experiences available; and (2) organization of the guidance system that permits counselors to exercise their professional talents most effectively. Determination of this latter objective must be made by a staff with vigorous leadership furnished by the principal. Some of the leading functions of the counselors can be grouped as follows:

1. *Educational counseling.* Students should receive assistance in planning their high-school programs in perspective of their own abilities and future plans.
2. *Personal counseling.* Many students need assistance relative to personal affairs that affect their school achievement.
3. *Vocational counseling.* Information must be made available to our students about the changing job opportunities.

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While attempting to furnish the necessary information and to become acquainted with the three to four hundred assigned counselees, the counselors have been frustrated for they have been forced to meet the exigencies of the daily school problems. The guidance staff must continue to analyze how past work time has been spent. This is a starting point to give direction to better utilization of time and analyzing the importance of problems as they appeared to that staff. In order to free the counselors to use their special knowledges and skills most effectively, the entire staff must be utilized. What are some of the things that can be accomplished by teachers and yet directed by the counseling staff so students receive proper direction?

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. School orientation | 8. Good citizenship |
| 2. The job of being a student | 9. Graduation check list |
| 3. School and community service | 10. Occupational self-appraisal |
| 4. Cocurricular activities | 11. Laws as they apply to minors |
| 5. Administration, interpretation, and evaluation of standardized test data to students | 12. College requirements |
| 6. Manners and morals | 13. Speakers from colleges, armed forces, employment services |
| 7. Planning the high-school educational program | 14. Preparing the seniors for follow-up studies |

The writer is suggesting that these important matters can be properly done by well-oriented classroom teachers. The administrator must arrange for these to be done without interrupting the amount of time devoted to classroom instruction. The energies of the counseling staff should be directed toward the preparation of materials to be used by the teachers and in determining the effectiveness of the program. With many of the routine problems attacked with staff assistance, the counseling staff is free to spend time on serious individual problems, group areas such as the gifted and the underachiever, the counselor and the school curriculum, college and school relations, articulation programs, and directing the necessary research studies within the school.

The problem of effective organization must be solved by the administrator as he views his particular situation. The principal can be assured that effective use of the counselor's professional talents can only be achieved when many details are completed by others.

Summary of the presentation made by LESLIE W. KINDRED

IN DEALING with this question, it is necessary to know first what services guidance counselors should perform in a secondary school. Practical decisions about how best to use their time and energies cannot be made until this understanding is established.

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An analysis of duties and responsibilities will show that these functionaries should perform more than forty different services in a superior program. The services are related to pupils, teachers, administrators, parents, and the community.

In the category relating to pupils are such services as the orientation of new pupils, individual counseling, individual testing, college advisement, vocational counseling, job placement, advisement on educational programs, and case studies.

In the category relating to teachers are such services as supplying teachers with background information about individual pupils, aiding teachers in the planning of home-room programs, helping teachers learn how to identify symptoms of maladjustment in pupils, working with teachers on the selection of tests, and showing teachers how to interpret and use test findings.

In the category relating to administrators are such services as advisement on the master schedule, advisement on course offerings, advisement on pupil groupings, advisement on co-curricular activities, advisement on school-wide testing programs, and advisement on pupil records.

In the category relating to parents and community are such services as advisement regarding the educational programs of children; pooling of home, school, and community resources in working with pupils on serious adjustment problems; informing parents of available foundations and agencies concerned with child health problems; and making parents aware of the need for securing psychological aid for their children.

From this analysis, the administrator can now ask which ones of these services should be performed at what might be called a *minimum* level of operation. In other words, he would be concerned with selecting only those services for counselors to perform which constituted the lowest acceptable program for a secondary school to offer. By extending this concept, he would next add others from the list to bring the nature and scope of services up to an *adequate* level of operation, and then he would add the remainder of the list to bring the services up to a *superior* level of operation.

Having completed this step in the process of working toward a practical solution to his problem of how best to use the time and energies of guidance counselors, his task at this point becomes that of determining, by means of formulas,¹ the number of counselors and secretaries required for performing the services at each of the three different levels of operation as well as the amount of floor space and facilities needed for doing their work efficiently.

With this background of analysis and organization, the principal is now ready to decide (1) at what level of operation his counselors must

¹ These formulas and related details were worked out by a group of guidance counselors and the writer. They appear in a booklet entitled *Guidance in Gloucester County*. The booklet may be purchased for one dollar from the County Superintendent of Schools, County Office Building, Clayton, New Jersey.

function considering their number in relation to the size of the student body, secretarial assistance available, assigned space, and facilities at hand and (2) whether or not changes should be made in the work of his counselors so that their time and energies are directed to the performance of services assigned to the level of operation at which his school should be functioning.

If the procedures described here were followed carefully by principals, they would result in a more efficient use of the time and energies of the guidance counselors. Moreover, they would have their guidance counselors performing services that are often overlooked and, also, dropping services that should not be undertaken with a numerically inadequate staff and poor facilities.

HOW DEVELOP AND MAINTAIN GOOD PRINCIPAL-FACULTY RELATIONSHIPS?

CHAIRMAN: *Leo Weitz*, Principal, James Monroe High School, New York, New York

INTERROGATORS:

James F. Conover, Principal, Garfield High School, Terre Haute, Indiana

Don W. Davis, Principal, Thomas Williams Junior High School, Wyncote, Pennsylvania

Garford G. Gordon, Research Executive, California Teachers Association, Burlingame, California.

Summary of the presentation made by ED HASSELBLAD

DR. SEUSS has the secret: "A person's a person, no matter how small." From this premise of the worth of the individual comes the administrative philosophy of our suburban high school. The premise has corollaries: (1) the faculty is the prime source of ideas; (2) rules and regulations and procedures are most effective when they are developed by the people closest to the action; and (3) the clash and compromise of ideas is the basic procedure of a democracy—and should be the basic procedure of any high school dedicated to fostering democracy.

The Premise in Practice. In practical terms, our philosophy means that we recognize that our teachers are academic professionals and that we must develop and maintain for them a free academic environment. Good teaching is a good principal's most important product.

Edward Hasselblad is Principal of Shoreline High School, Seattle 55, Washington. Enrollment, 1,800.

To have a sound relationship with his staff, we believe that the principal must foster in the high school a high regard for academic achievement. Three of our techniques might be of interest: we have instituted a voluntary seventh-hour program in which paid teachers sponsor such academic activities as reading-improvement classes and courses in the humanities; we have established an academic night each week free from student and faculty meetings and activities; again, we have as our most important assembly our spring academic assembly in which prominent intellectuals hold academic goals before the student body and in which academic achievement is publicly recognized and generously rewarded.

Further, we believe that, to assure a good faculty relationship through a sound academic program, the principal must provide for the placement of the most able students in classes which challenge them and the least able in classes which give them some opportunity of success. Again, the principal must protect the teaching time of his teachers as jealously as he guards the trophy case. The principal, too, must relieve his faculty of the patrolling of halls and the policing of grounds by helping students practice the kind of self-control which makes such jobs unnecessary. The principal should help his teachers avoid clerk-producing routine: every budget should provide for theme-reading help; registration, attendance, and reporting detail should be done by machines; exercises and tests should be typed by clerks. Finally, perhaps no single activity is more conducive to good principal-faculty rapport than steady, relentless lobbying for better teaching loads and adequate instructional materials.

We believe, too, that principals should realize that committees are the bane of this business. Accordingly, we use only three committees: an assembly committee, a committee on student body finance, and a faculty social committee. For the exchange of ideas and the free debate of policy, we use the existing lines of organization: the weekly meetings of the department heads, the regular departmental meetings, and group conferences with teachers during non-teaching periods. Freed of committee work, our faculty has organized voluntary biweekly meetings to discuss educational trends and policy matters. And for fifteen minutes every day between the first and second hours, the faculty gathers in the faculty room for coffee and pedagogical conversation.

In short, we believe that in such a free academic environment the faculty, the superintendent, the board, and the principal together should decide the matters of prime policy. The day-to-day administrative decisions should come from the principal alone.

The Assessment of the Practices. We believe that what we're doing works. Our patrons pass our levies. We have a small teacher turnover and a myriad of applications. As the responsible democracy we're attempting has become diffused through the faculty to the students, they in turn have improved in self-control and in the ability to study; each of our graduating classes has excelled the previous one.

We do know that either the students or the faculty could confuse liberty with license. But we do believe that, in taking the calculated risk of liberty, we are freeing our teachers to concentrate on quality teaching and that in our teachers we're giving our students models of democratic responsibility. In short, we believe that not only are we fostering good principal-faculty relations, but also that we're proving the basic democratic premise: "A person's a person, and not small at all."

Summary of the presentation made by A. D. HANCOCK

GOOD principal-faculty relationships must exist if the youth of our nations' schools are to receive the quality education they deserve. There are many factors involved in assuring quality education, such as adequate school plants, sufficient financial support, well-balanced curricula, a good guidance program, qualified personnel, and strong leadership by the administration. However, within an individual school, one of the most important factors in developing and maintaining a sound educational program is the existence of an attitude of mutual understanding between the principal and teachers.

The role that the principal must assume as the educational leader in an individual school has been rather clearly emphasized for many years. The principal, working cooperatively with the staff, sets the tone of the school. By observing democratic procedures, the members of the staff will have a voice in policy making. This should strengthen the faculty and give each member a feeling of greater responsibility for the success of the total school program.

It is generally conceded that good principal-faculty relationships mean good staff morale. Good staff morale is one of the most effective and surest ways to produce a like effect in the classroom.¹

Some practices used in a typical Tennessee high school in an attempt to develop and maintain good staff relationships, thereby creating better teaching situations and, subsequently, better teaching, are given below.

Principal-Teacher Conference. Each spring a conference is held with every teacher to evaluate the year's work and to plan for the following year. At this time the teacher is urged to discuss freely any plans that may affect his future. These plans may be related to a continuation of the program already underway or they may be new and experimental ideas. Also, at this session any request for change of positions is made. An expression of appreciation for the teachers' work is always given and any suggestions deemed wise for professional improvement are made.

¹ Harold G. Shane, and Wilburn A. Yauch, *Creative School Administration*. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 1954. P. 121.

A. D. Hancock is Principal of Cumberland High School, Nashville 8, Tennessee. Enrollment, 719.

New Teacher Contacts. During the summer, contact is made with the new teachers assigned to our school. This contact may be by letter or phone. The community is described, the program of the school explained, and a cordial welcome extended.

Practices During Year. During the year a series of very simple practices that are designed to create among the faculty a feeling of belonging, security, importance, and solidarity are followed. At an early faculty meeting, each teacher is assured by the principal that he will have his support, as far as possible, on any problem that arises. This support extends as far as state and county school policies permit.

The matter of teacher assignments to activities outside the classroom is of paramount importance. Every effort is made to find the interests of teachers and give them their choice of "extra" activities they shall sponsor. It is evident that teachers are happier working in areas of their interest.

The faculty is kept fully informed about the total school program. Regularly scheduled faculty meetings are held three times a month and a prepared agenda is given each teacher at every meeting. One meeting each month is planned by the In-Service Education Committee and items suggested by any teacher may appear on the agenda.

Classroom visitation is a most important method used to promote good staff relations. It gives an opportunity to praise good work, to keep aware of the problems that teachers encounter daily, and to have follow-up conferences.

Each teacher is given one hour a day for lesson preparation, marking papers, and relaxation. He has no student supervisory responsibility during this hour.

Efforts are made not to overwork a "willing" faculty member. Even though it is always easy to call on those who respond readily, it is not a good idea to do so. The close friends of the "willing" teacher resent this, and other staff members, just as capable, feel left out even though they may not be the volunteer type.

Consideration is given to the social development of the faculty. Events such as breakfasts, open house, refreshments before faculty meetings, and sending flowers to sick members of the staff create wholesome fellowship.

Faculty Council. The faculty council is an important committee at the school. The council, elected by the faculty, meets with the principal on matters of school policy that may not necessarily need the attention of the entire faculty. It is time saving and yet gives teachers a democratic voice in matters that relate directly to them.

It is evident that the above suggestions will not solve all the problems of staff relationships that exist within faculties, but the observation of these and others not mentioned have brought about a feeling of security, belonging, and importance among teachers in our school.

Summary of the presentation made by RUSSELL H. RUPP

- I. Together determine upon the philosophy and objectives of the school, the implementation of this philosophy and these objectives. This calls for positive pre-school orientation meetings for new teachers and continual re-evaluation by all the members of the staff.
- II. The staff should feel that they have a voice in the organization, administration, and the policies of the school by having curriculum committees and co-curricular committees. Staff should be placed on such committees according to their abilities and interests.
- III. *Areas of staff-administration relations*
 1. *Working conditions*
 - a. Equalization of the working loads and clear understanding of the responsibilities of the teachers.
 - b. Non-teaching duties should be kept at a minimum. Sufficient non-teaching time for better preparation and thought.
 - c. Careful evaluation of teachers' meetings—should be worth while and meaningful.
 - d. Absolute minimum amount of interruptions of class and daily schedules.
 2. *Staff committees*

Committee reports seriously considered—does not end at the mere formation of the committee. Have a real and accepted reason for the formation of the committees. There should be proper recognition of the work of the committee.
 3. *Communication*
 - a. Should function both ways on a truly impersonal and professional basis.
 - b. Administration should actively seek constructive suggestions from teachers.
 - c. Policies of the school should be clearly understood and accepted.
 4. *Supervision*
 - a. Supervision should be positive and constructive with the purpose of improving the quality of the teacher's work.
 - b. Someone in the administration must find time to try to help teachers solve problems that trouble them. Many times this can be well done by senior faculty members.

Working together effectively requires much effort on the part of all concerned.

Russell H. Rupp is Principal of Shaker Heights High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio.

A CURRENT CRITICAL ISSUE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION— SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL

THIS was arranged by the Committee on Curriculum planning and Development and the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Group I on Tuesday afternoon was a repetition of Group I on Monday afternoon. No one attended both Monday and Tuesday sessions. A summary of the buzz-group discussions was given on Wednesday morning.

Chairman for Monday: James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania; President, NASSP

Chairman for Tuesday: James D. Logsdon, Superintendent, Thornton Township High Schools and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois, First Vice President, NASSP

Summary of the presentation made by MERRILL F. HARTSHORN

IMPORTANCE OF THE ISSUE

THE preparation of citizens able to make an informed and intelligent choice between the various major alternatives open to our society is a central task of education. In the field of social studies education, we must concentrate on educating citizens who possess the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes citizens need to participate effectively and responsibly within the framework of our great heritage—citizens who can make informed choices when faced with decisions.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The importance of the social studies program in the education of our youth is second to no other area of the total school curriculum. Senator Fulbright in a speech before the Senate on August 21, 1958 put it this way: "As badly as we need scientists and linguists, we even more badly need people who are capable of evaluating the work of scientists and of making the enormously complicated decisions—which are essentially political decisions—that are called for if we are to adjust our policies and our life to our scientific progress."

With the accelerating scientific and technological revolution, the responsibilities of educators in the field of social studies have been greatly increased, and demand that a fresh and creative approach be taken in developing the social studies curriculum for the future. There are four

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major sources we can examine in an effort to secure clues as to what should be included in a social studies program.

1. Our society is changing both abruptly and disruptively and, in thinking about new goals for the social studies, some analysis of the major upheavals in our society today should provide some of the clues for an educational program that will give some promise for the survival of mankind.

2. Other clues that will help us determine our social studies curriculum and its content will be found by a careful examination of our past history as we seek to develop enlightened United States citizens, loyal to our nation and its democratic heritage, who possess insight and believe in the values of a free society and who know our history and the story of the development of our nation.

3. The other social sciences—geography, political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, and psychology—provide a reservoir of knowledge about man in his environment which must be analyzed to select those elements essential in preparing youth for life in our changing world.

4. Knowledge about the nature of the teaching-learning process and the maturity level of the group will also aid in the determination of content and method.

Time will not permit analyzing all four of these sources, and it probably is not necessary to do so at this time. However, to gain some further insight into the importance and urgency of examining our social studies offerings at this time a few examples of major changes in our society are pertinent.

1. *The scientific revolution.* A dominant fact in the modern period of history is the ongoing and accelerating scientific and technological revolution. Scientific advance pervades the whole of contemporary life. It is changing the occupational pattern of the economy. It is changing the pattern of war and peace, influencing the determination of foreign and domestic policy at every level. It is changing the folkways of society and many of the habits and assumptions of large numbers of people.

Not only is change going on constantly, but the rate of change is being accelerated. Charles Frankel in an article in the *New York Times* magazine makes this point dramatically: "It took man 475,000 years to arrive at the agricultural revolution . . . (and) another 25,000 years to come to the industrial revolution. We have arrived at the 'Space Age' in 150 years . . . and, while we do not know where we will go from here, we can be sure that we will go there fast."

While science has solved certain problems, it has, at the same time, created many others. The air waves, which can provide instantaneous communication, can bring greater opportunities to develop understanding; but they can also carry incitement to murder, riot, and wars. Automation speeds production, insures high accuracy, and reduces costs; but it also raises a spectre of economic dislocation and unemployment. Nuclear

energy can provide power for peaceful production or for the explosive force that can annihilate cities.

The preparation of more scientists and engineers is not the most difficult of tasks a scientific and technological era imposes on education. It is the *consumers* of science rather than the *producers* of science whose education for life in a scientific era is dangerously inadequate.

Science and technology are creating a world whose dimensions are as unfamiliar as the American continent was to Columbus and those who followed him across the trackless seas. Man is not yet equipped to live in this new world, or to manage its economic and political and cultural forces constructively. The complexities of the task of educating him are enormous. In a democracy with an industrial economy and world-wide responsibilities, the importance of such education is paramount.

2. *International interdependence.* A dramatic and far-reaching result of the scientific revolution has been the contracting of time and space as factors separating people one from another. Not only has the time required to carry messages, men, or goods over great distances been reduced, but access to the instruments of communication and transportation has been extended to increasingly larger percentages of the world's people. The interrelationships of this contracted world are infinitely complicated.

In international affairs the shrinking of time and space has brought new and complex problems. The rising tide of nationalism among colonial and former colonial peoples comes at a time when the practical conditions of world interdependence demand attitudes and actions which are international rather than national in outlook. We are living in an era fraught with change, conflict, misunderstanding and distrust. This is a difficult base on which to build.

The fact of world interdependence has profound implications for contemporary American education. Through the social studies and related fields, the schools must prepare today's youth for a fuller understanding of interdependent relationships. This preparation must include such basic information as understanding other cultures as well as our own. Education must help to identify and work toward solutions to the conflicts and problems which inevitably arise when varied political, economic, and cultural systems are brought into continuing intimate relationships.

3. A "*population explosion*" confronts today's world. It is in the field of human numbers that man faces his greatest challenge. The extent of the spurt in population can be measured in startling figures. An hour from now there will be 5,000 more members of the human family. By this time tomorrow, the world's population will have increased by about 125,000 people. This means 45,000,000 more within a year. Since 1920 the world's population has expanded by close to 50 per cent; and, if current rates are continued, the population of the earth will double before the year 2,000. Equally important is the fact that the rate of growth is

by no means uniform the world over. The most explosive developments are taking place in many of the under-developed areas of the world.

The United States has less than seven per cent of the world's population. Our material resources and technological developments have, in the past, put us in a position of power in the world. As other nations become industrialized, our power position will shift relative to other nations and areas of the world.

Even the United States, richest of all nations, has to come to grips with these problems—today and not a decade hence. The changing balance in the proportions of young and old creates new social and economic problems. Many of our political institutions, as well as cultural and educational patterns, emerging from a simpler age, have not caught up with the fact of the shift from rural to urban areas and of the existence of metropolitan areas. In under-developed countries of the world, the problems are even more acute.

4. *Today's public problems are more complex than those of earlier times.* The citizen of the United States hardly needs to be reminded of the continuing impingement of government upon his life. At all levels of government, there are questions of public policy in which he, as a responsible individual, needs to participate. Public problems today are vastly different from those with which the average American had to deal even so short a time as a generation ago.

Just as relationships of the individual to government are changing, so also are those of government to non-governmental agencies. Recent years have witnessed the movement of government into areas of the economy that were once the exclusive province of private enterprise. In a different manner, government is called upon to exercise regulatory functions and to serve as arbiter between economic groups.

The same may be said of relationships within the structure of government itself. American federalism is a complex web of national, state, and local relationships. There is a continually growing uncertainty about the role of government at different levels, and assuredly there must be compromise through public policy.

Where international relationships are involved, the problems of public policy become more complex. There are also policy questions relating to membership in the United Nations and in numerous other international arrangements.

5. *The American economy has undergone drastic change.* The changes since 1940 have been so great that comparisons with earlier periods tend to lose meaning. Only part of the change is reflected in the various indexes of statistics of price increases, in the monetary value of production, and in average family incomes. There have been changes in kind as well as in degree.

The development of electronics has accelerated the trend toward automatic control of the production process. Automation promises increased productivity for labor and continuing new demands for special-

ized skills. It often creates problems of temporary unemployment and usually necessitates retraining of the labor force.

The rate at which an all-out global war used up irreplaceable natural-resources surpassed peace-time use but not by much. Lulled by the stereotype of the scientist, who will surely find new sources of power and raw materials and by current national abundance which hides the picture of global scarcity, we shy away from controls which might curtail wastefulness and encourage intelligent use of resources.

Our economy has grown so large and so intricate that its components have necessarily developed a giant impersonality. The modern corporation has transcended the boundaries of both state and nation and operates on an international scale. Its impact on education is both direct and competitive as many companies have established in-service educational programs for both wage earners and executives.

Organized labor, like its colleague in collective bargaining, has grown to the point where it carries on industry-wide negotiations with equality of power.

The once individualistic farmer has fallen into step with the times. Where farming was once an isolated and independent way of life, it is now a fully integrated factor of the national economy. The farmer has adopted business methods in running his enterprise; he has almost completely mechanized his operations; and he too is organized.

The machinery for operating our economy has grown and changed in function. Credit, once a convenience supplementing the function of money, has taken on a dominant role. Perhaps the greatest change that has taken place is the increased role of government in controlling the economy and the general acceptance of that fact.

Education must provide economic literacy. The challenge is: How can government be kept efficient and yet conform to the principles of democracy?

6. *Social science research provides a reservoir which should be used.* The public is aware that research in the physical and biological sciences has created a major reservoir of theoretical knowledge from which inventors may draw for future innovations and improvements in technology. The public is less aware of the existence of a body of knowledge which has grown from research in the social sciences. Changes in government, social institutions, economic life, and education will be made more intelligently if the research of the social scientist is as fully utilized in directing social change as the research in science is being utilized in bringing about technological change. Further, additional resources need to be found and put to work on further research in the social sciences so they can keep pace with research in science and its consequent impact on society.

The behavioral sciences have, in a short span of time, provided significant findings for social planning. In community study, knowledge has accumulated which stresses the importance of human ecology. In the field of political behavior, research is accumulating knowledge about the

nature of public opinion, the voting habits of citizens, the attitudes of different groups toward law and authority, and many other behavior traits which enter into an understanding of the dynamics of government.

The economist provides us with impressive data of a burgeoning new age of abundance. Geographers are working to increase man's knowledge about how places differ, why they differ, how they are changing, and how they are spatially related. The historian in his research is re-evaluating the past, using the insights which research in other social sciences has developed about man and his institutions in the present. The quality of human living has been and can be further improved by the discoveries of the physical and biological sciences. The full potential of this improvement can only be realized by the full utilization of social science research in education.

7. *A crisis in values characterizes life today.* It is inevitable that, in an era of rapid change in many of the physical and material characteristics of society, there should be strain and conflict in the realm of common assumptions and accepted values. To a greater degree than in many early periods of history, contemporary society is less sure of its sustaining framework, less secure in its accepted ideals, less satisfied with its value assumptions. Changing values are reflected in every social phenomenon.

The crisis is most apparent in the ideological conflict among nations. In one sense, these conflicts center in the battle for the minds and loyalties of men between the tenets of democracy and the tenets of communism. In another sense the conflicts are repeated in the differing philosophical outlooks and criteria of behavior of the Orient and the Occident. The expansion of international relations is manifested not only in geographical, but also in cultural terms. Varying ideological assumptions from culturally distant parts of the world greatly complicate the conduct of international affairs.

As a consequence of these conflicts, the problems of ethics are more insistent both in theory and in application. The speed of change in contemporary existence complicates the application of values to specific situations. People are increasingly less certain of the boundary line between right and wrong. The national society is torn by value conflicts on such issues as race relations, individualism *versus* conformity, idealism *versus* materialism, the purposes of education and the specific role of schools and colleges.

Young people feel particularly insecure in an era in which values are questioned. Increased tensions among age groups in the population, growing experimentation in ethical areas, sharp disagreement as to the nature and cause of delinquency, increased search for an acceptable belief and an incontrovertible standard—all of these are present in and caused by our age of uncertainty.

Our nation's educational system is but an outgrowth of our basic cultural structure and values. Any discussion, therefore, of the objectives of education in a democratic society must also include the development of

moral and ethical standards. Indeed, the fundamental premise upon which democracy rests is the presumption that men and women can be taught to think for themselves and measure the right from wrong of their actions against freely accepted standards of conduct.

These areas of basic change in American life must be viewed in relation to the traditional values of a free society, but they are the determinants of education in the future. Education, then, is both deeply influenced by such conditioners of America's future as have been outlined and is itself a prime conditioner of the future. The reappraisal of our educational enterprise is, therefore, of utmost consequence.

An imperative for a free society in an era of rapid change is: Study your society and know your institutions and your nation in relation to the rest of the world. The function of the social studies is to respond in a systematic and rational fashion to this imperative.

It is equally imperative that we educate free, independent, and vigorous minds, capable of analyzing events, of exercising judgment, of distinguishing facts from propaganda, truth from half truths and lies, and right from wrong. The development of basic skills ranks equally with the acquisition of knowledge. There are two alternatives to critical thinking in a society that is changing abruptly and disruptively. One is to think with "your blood" as Hitler put it; the other is to turn the thinking over to a few smart men because, as many believe, today's problems seem too big for the ordinary man to solve. Neither of these alternatives should find any favor in a democratic state.

We must do more in curriculum planning to enable students to see the relationships between various disciplines and to be able to arrive at a synthesis of the whole. No problem today, and certainly not its solution, can be dealt with solely within the confines of a single discipline.

It is correct to observe that the challenges now confronting the social studies are not new. What is new, and this is of crucial importance, is the accelerated rate of scientific and technological change and the accompanying impact on society. Our society will be swept by change like a prairie brush fire. Time now becomes a decisive factor and our future depends on our ability to meet the challenges in the light of changed conditions. Our survival can well depend on our devoting all of the energies at our command to developing a better understanding of man and his relationships, and of the institutions of society. This must be done with imagination and creativity.

In the light of these significant changes that have taken place in society, and of those yet to come, let us look at the social studies program in our schools to see whether it is keeping up to date.

THE PROGRAM OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

As one examines the social studies curriculum as it generally exists today and looks into its origins, it is not difficult to see why it is both

important and urgent that serious study be given to initiate changes in the program.

Looking at the historical evolution of the curriculum in very broad terms, you have the situation which prevailed from 1893 to World War I where a series of reports, prepared by scholars largely from the field of history and political science, made recommendations for course content and grade placement that were generally followed in our schools.

In 1916 the Committee on Social Studies of the NEA Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education issued a report containing recommendations for the social studies curriculum that has had more lasting influence on the social studies program than any other single report. In fact it set the basic pattern that is still followed generally in our schools today. It is true that there have been some modifications of the recommendations in the report and an updating of content from a chronological point of view. One modification has been the substitution of the World History Course for the 2 or 2½ year sequence of ancient, medieval, and English or modern European history. There has been some addition of topics such as consumer education, international relations, study of Latin American, and non-western cultures. Many minor modifications have been made in the social studies program of some local school systems, often on a temporary or fluctuating basis. Often special "hobby horse" interests have crept into the curriculum. Also pressures from various groups—usually with financial backing—have resulted in topics or programs of various sorts being included in the curriculum. There is always danger that the social studies program will be determined by the purses of advocates of special programs rather than by the considered needs of society and pupils for education in the social studies.

The over-all picture of the social studies curriculum since World War I reveals some progress toward a sound program in some school systems, makeshift adaptations in others, and a survival of a curriculum of World War I vintage (with some modifications) in a majority of the schools of the nation. There is a clear indication of confusion in the present picture of the social studies program. It is to be hoped that the discussion groups which are meeting at this Convention can make a real contribution to the clarification of the goals, and in making recommendations as to the content and organization of a sound, vigorous, and forward looking social studies program. This is a real challenge and a vital opportunity for each of you.

For in the light of the great changes that are taking place in our society—at home and in our world relations—we can no longer be satisfied with a program designed for another age. A program that is covered with patches designed to meet temporary needs or the interests of various pressure groups cannot possibly meet present day needs. The times call for new and creative thinking on the over-all social studies program. The urgency of the problem cannot be over-stated. A program that may

have worked well for an earlier generation will not meet the needs of the nuclear world in which we are now living.

FIVE MAJOR PROBLEMS

Among the tasks you face are:

1. A clarification of the nature and type of the social studies program that will best prepare our youth for life in a rapidly changing society. This program must also meet the needs of society and be aimed at preserving our nation and the values of a free people. Consideration must be given to the over-all social studies program to be offered in our schools. The organization of the program should have a logical sequence through the various grade levels.

2. The need to arrive at some conclusions as to what content should be included in the social studies program is a persistent problem. This means that the term social studies must be carefully defined and delimited so that the social studies program will not be a dumping ground. The effectiveness of the social studies program is impaired if it is faced with a host of extraneous responsibilities. Instruction in such matters as home and family living, personal health, narcotics, and driver education have been established in school programs by decisions of the public, but it should be accepted that such instruction can best be handled by others than teachers of the social studies.

Teaching social studies is a complex process and should include significant selections from all the social science disciplines. The reservoir of knowledge in the social sciences is vast and the amount of time in the school program for social studies is of necessity limited. Hence the problem of what to teach is not an easy one. It is clear that there is not time for extraneous material (regardless of its merit) to be included that is not central to the particular contribution the social sciences can make to the education of our youth. Some valid criteria must be established for the selection of content.

Further, in a world of rapid and continual change, the social studies can have no fixed or immutable content. A large proportion of the information to be taught will remain constant over a period of time, but the total body of content will require frequent updating and sharpening as new problems arise in society and as new ways of approaching problems are discovered.

3. In addition to the problem of selecting, organizing, and imparting knowledge, we must be concerned with the development of basic values of our free society and provide opportunities for the development of social studies skills so that our citizens will be able to come to grips with new issues that will arise in the future. This means that our youth must gain insight and knowledge about the methodology employed by the social scientist. Put another way, it means that they must know how the social scientist goes about the task of compiling, selecting, organizing, and

interpreting data. All these things are no less important than factual knowledge itself.

4. Dealing with the problem of individual differences continues to present a problem. Otherwise, we stand in a position where much of our potential manpower and human resources will be lost. We must continue to work on such matters as programs designed for the academically talented, the slow learner, and for youth who come from culturally deprived environments. In doing this though, we must not neglect new considerations for the average group between these extremes. Much attention is currently focussed on these special groups and the danger is a failure to give proper consideration to needed program changes for all youth.

5. In the field of techniques of teaching, considerable study and discussion of new electronic media, new methods of teaching and grouping, testing and evaluation, and of research related to the nature of the learning process is warranted. We must be sure to evaluate all such things carefully and utilize the most promising developments in teaching. These five factors are among the major problems we must deal with in strengthening the social studies offerings in our schools.

THE CHALLENGE WE FACE

The challenge we face is vitally important and solutions are urgently needed if we are to meet our responsibilities to youth and society. The time is ripe for dealing with them since there is great interest in many quarters in the problems and in helping with their solution. Many scholars from the social science disciplines are willing to work with scholars from education in helping to solve the problems. The American Council of Learned Societies has a committee of scholars working on some aspects of the projects and research studies that will help shed some light on the problem. A number of school systems are conducting studies and surveys dealing with particular aspects of the problems confronting the social studies programs in our schools. Professional educational organizations—including the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies—are endeavoring to help. The Tufts Civic Education Center has a project that is being developed with the cooperation of nine state commissioners of education in the Northeast Region that is examining the problem. The fellowship programs of foundations are providing opportunities of leading teachers to enrich and broaden their own background in the social sciences and humanities. The recipients of these fellowships will be able to make a contribution to the strengthening of the social studies program. One could extend this list of promising developments. Those cited are given merely as examples of vitality in the field. Yet much remains to be done in bringing together the results of all these studies—and even more important is the need for taking a look at the total social studies program and not simply at parts of the problem.

Most important, our youth are ready to move ahead. One gets the feeling that they may be ahead of their teachers as their vitality is felt in many ways. Their ability to tackle problems, to do more than is frequently expected of them are indices that this significant resource in our society is not being fully developed. They are not mainly delinquents, lazy or indifferent, if they are properly challenged.

We must realize that the present generation in our schools, and those that will soon be following them, must understand and know far more than previous generations and their present elders if the values we treasure in our civilization are to endure. This applies as much to the social studies area as it does to other curriculum areas.

The hope of a better world lies not—in the final analysis—in science and technology, but, rather, in the aspirations and unceasing endeavors of men of good will who will understand that man's conquest of nature will remain meaningless, even less than meaningless, unless he learns to conquer himself and the instruments he has created, and to live with his fellow man in a just and decent world. This is the challenge we face.

Ad Hoc Committee

The position paper on "Social Studies in the Comprehensive Secondary School," discussed on Monday and Tuesday afternoon, was prepared by the following members of the *Ad Hoc Committee*:

Delmas F. Miller, Director, University High School, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia; Chairman, Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, NASSP; *Chairman*

Florence O. Benjamin, Coordinator of Social Studies, Abington Senior High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

George L. Cleland, Director, Division of Instructional Services, State Department of Public Instruction, Topeka, Kansas

Howard H. Cummings, Specialist for Social Science, Secondary Schools Section, U.S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

Richard E. Gross, Associate Professor of Education, Stanford University, Stanford, California

Mrs. Dorothy W. Hamilton, Chairman, Citizenship Education Department, Herricks Senior High School, New Hyde Park, Long Island, New York

Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, Room 208, NEA Building, Washington 6, D. C., *General Consultant*

George Higginbottom, Principal, Belmont Senior High School, Belmont, Massachusetts F

Eunice I. Johns, Chairman, Department of Social Studies, Wilmington Public Schools, 511 West Eighth Street, Wilmington, Delaware

Harold M. Long, Supervisor of Social Studies, and Director, Project on Improving the Teaching of World Affairs, Glens Falls High School, Glens Falls, New York

Franklin K. Patterson, Director, Civic Education Center, Tufts University, Medford 55, Massachusetts

Ole Sand, Director, Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, National Education Association; Professor of Education, Wayne State University, on leave, Washington 6, D. C.

Finas G. Sandlin, Principal, McAlester High School, McAlester, Oklahoma

William Van Til, Chairman, Department of Secondary Education, New York University, Washington Square, New York 3, New York

David E. Weingast, Principal, Weequahic High School, Newark, New Jersey

Edith West, Supervisor of Student Teachers, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Ellsworth Tompkins, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Washington 6, D. C.; *ex officio*

J. Lloyd Trump, Associate Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington 6, D. C.; *Secretary*

Discussion Leaders for Social Studies Buzz Groups

Carl W. Anderson, Principal, Washburn High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota

David W. Beggs, III, Principal, Lakeview High School, Decatur, Illinois

Kenneth A. Berg, Principal, Harding High School, St. Paul, Minnesota

Conrad Briner, Director of Educational Field Services, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

J. K. Brown, Supervisor of High Schools, Davidson County Schools, Nashville, Tennessee

A. Hunter Chapman, Principal, Lincoln-Way Community High School, New Lenox, Illinois

Langley G. Claxton, Principal, Ramapo Regional High School, Franklin Lakes, New Jersey

Clell Conrad, Vice Principal, Senior High School, Corvallis, Oregon

Taylor V. Cremeans, Principal, Laboratory School, Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia

Lewis DeLaura, Principal, Southwest Junior High School, Melbourne, Florida

Beryl R. Dillman, Assistant Professor of Education, University of California, Santa Barbara, California

Donald R. Eels, Principal, McKinstry Junior High School, Waterloo, Iowa

J. Walter Gillis, Principal, Consolidated High School, Barrington, Illinois

Kenneth K. Hansen, Principal, Westside High School, Omaha, Nebraska

Terrance E. Hatch, Associate Professor of Education, Utah State University, Logan, Utah

George Higginbottom, Principal, Senior High School, Belmont, Massachusetts

Helen B. Hill, Principal, High School, Teaneck, New Jersey

Otto Iszler, Principal, High School, Wallace, Idaho

- Curtis Johnson*, Principal, Alexander Ramsey High School, St. Paul, Minnesota
- Robert W. Jones*, Principal, High School, Wilmington, Illinois
- C. W. Juergensmeyer*, Principal, Senior High School, Logan, West Virginia
- William E. Kleim*, Principal, Pennridge Senior High School, Perkasi, Pennsylvania
- Norris A. King*, Director of Secondary Education, Baltimore County Schools, Towson, Maryland
- John D. Koontz*, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Junior and Senior High Schools, D. C. Public Schools, Washington, D. C.
- Arleigh W. McConnell*, Principal, Anacapa Junior High School, Ventura, California
- Bernard S. Miller*, Associate Director, John Hay Fellows Program, New York, New York
- C. S. Morris, Jr.*, Principal, Junior High School, Eureka, California
- Donald M. Prince*, Associate Professor of Education, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois
- Oliver L. Rapp*, Principal, High School, Hammond, Indiana
- William D. Reese*, Principal, Natrona County High School, Casper, Wyoming
- Bernard Rezabek*, Chairman, Division I, Undergraduate Teacher Education, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming
- Lieb Richmond*, Principal, Nathan Hale High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma
- Clarence D. Samford*, Chairman, Department of Secondary Education, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois
- Finas G. Sandlin*, Principal, High School, McAlester, Oklahoma
- William J. Scanlan*, Consultant, Public Schools, St. Paul, Minnesota
- Harold E. Smith*, Principal, Senior High School, El Dorado, Arkansas
- J. Bryant Smith, Jr.*, Principal, Senior High School, Greenwood, Mississippi
- Clifford H. Sweat*, Principal, Lincoln Junior High School, Park Ridge, Illinois
- C. E. Swingley*, Principal, Thomas A. Edison High School, Gary, Indiana
- H. Theo. Tatum*, Principal, Roosevelt High School, Garry, Indiana
- Eugene H. Van Vliet*, Principal, Senior High School, Tenafly, New Jersey
- Vernon S. Vavrina*, Assistant Superintendent for Secondary, Vocation, and Adult Education, Public Schools, Baltimore, Maryland
- Floyd E. Wiegand*, Secondary-School Supervisor, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin

Recorders of Social Studies Buzz-Group Sessions

- Sister Alphonsus Marie, I.H.M.*, Associate Professor of History, Marygrove College, Detroit 21, Michigan
- Max W. Barrows*, Deputy Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Montpelier, Vermont
- Clifford W. Blasfield*, Principal, Lincoln High School, East St. Louis, Illinois

- Lloyd H. Boilesen, Principal, High School, Bellevue, Nebraska
W. Lester Carver, Principal, High School, Wilmerding, Pennsylvania
Lloyd M. Creighton, Principal, High School, Haverhill, Massachusetts
Earl Dierken, Assistant Director, North Central Association, Foreign Relations Project, R.F.D., New Lenox, Illinois
Imrie Dixon, Principal, High School, Melrose, Massachusetts
Joseph A. Dorff, Principal, Upper Arlington High School, Columbus, Ohio
Jackson M. Drake, Superintendent, Community High Schools, Carbondale, Illinois
O. B. Farren, Principal, High School, St. Marys, West Virginia
Margaret Felton, Head Teacher, University of Pittsburgh, Folk Laboratory School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
John Flynn, Principal, Thornton Fractional Township South High School, Lansing, Illinois
John E. French, Principal, North Shore High School, Glen Head, Long Island, New York
Roby E. Fretwell, Principal, Senior High School, Keokuk, Iowa
Donald G. Gifford, Principal, Technical High School, Springfield, Massachusetts
R. J. A. Hallen, Principal, Monroe High School, St. Paul 2, Minnesota
L. Russell Heath, Principal, Junior-Senior High School, Springfield, Vermont
Gerald F. Hopkins, Principal, High School, Mountain Lakes, New Jersey
Ernest Horacek, Principal, Westbrook Junior High School, Omaha 14, Nebraska
Roy O. Isacksen, Principal, Como Park Junior High School, St. Paul 17, Minnesota
Stanley H. Lorenzen, Principal, Staples High School, Westport, Connecticut
John McGovern, Principal, Senior High School, Walpole, Massachusetts
Sister M. Mercedes, Chairman of Social Studies, Immacula High School, Detroit 21, Michigan
Merrill F. Norlin, Executive Associate, Tufts University Civic Education Center, Medford, Massachusetts
George I. Oeste, Vice Principal, Germantown High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Robert N. Radanzel, Assistant Principal, Public Schools, Elsie, Michigan
William J. Reardon, Jr., Principal High School, Rural Retreat, Virginia
Edward A. Sinnott, Principal, Tuckahoe, High School, Eastchester, New York
G. R. Smith, Principal, Senior High School, Clear Lake, Iowa
Dr. Dale S. Steffen, Superintendent, High School, Morris, Illinois
A. L. Tipton, Principal, Taver High School, Guthrie, Oklahoma
James H. Vincent, Exhibits Manager, Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies, Oak Ridge, Tennessee
John B. Wahl, Principal, Freedom-New Sewickley High School, Freedom, Pennsylvania

Lerue Winget, Director of Secondary Education, State School Office, State Capitol, Salt Lake City, Utah

George R. Yansen, Principal, James Madison Junior High School, Pontiac Michigan

Elmer O. Ziegler, Principal, Crete-Monee High School, Crete, Illinois

The Summary Meeting

Chairman for Wednesday: *Eugene S. Thomas*, Principal, Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan; Second Vice President, NASSP

Summarizers:

George L. Cleland, Director, Division of Instructional Services, State Department of Public Instruction, Topeka, Kansas

William Van Til, Chairman, Department of Secondary Education, New York University, New York, New York

Discussion Leader: Delmas F. Miller, Director, University High School, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia; Chairman, Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, NASSP

WHAT IS HAPPENING IN THE USE OF TEACHER TEAMS AND TEACHER ASSISTANTS—REPORT OF A SURVEY

(Arranged by the Committee on Staff Utilization, NASSP)

Chairman: Joseph G. Bryan, Director of Secondary Education, Kansas City Public Schools, Kansas City, Missouri

Presenters:

John P. Deason, Principal, Columbus High School, Columbus, Georgia

William Jack Stone, Principal, O'Farrell Junior High School, San Diego, California

Lloyd S. Michael, Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

Interrogators:

Mark N. Burkhardt, Principal, Carlisle Senior High School, Carlisle, Pennsylvania

Ralph J. Holder, Principal, Lorain High School, Lorain, Ohio

Harold A. Odell, Principal, Eastridge High School, Rochester, New York

Summary of the Presenters recorded by Philip R. Pitruzzello, Staff Associate, Committee on Staff Utilization, NASSP

LLOYD MICHAEL presented the history of the Staff Utilization Study under the 1955 NASSP Commission and also the work of the Committee which succeeded the Commission in 1960. Three items received most direct attention in his remarks:

1. Membership and activities of the new Committee
2. The appointment of three staff associates and the service they have been rendering:
Ira Singer—East coast,
Philip Pitruzzello—Midwest,
William Ramstad—West coast;
3. Announced that the results of the questionnaire on Staff Utilization were available (The survey was conducted in Colorado, California, Michigan, Illinois, New York, and Georgia).

William Jack Stone summarized the survey results which deal with teaching teams.

1. Team teaching has become rather widespread in secondary schools in the six states.
2. Physical education appears to be the area which has reported highest incidence of team teaching practices.
3. English and social studies are areas which also are making extensive use of teaching teams.
4. The 6-year high schools are the schools which have the highest proportionate participation in team teaching.

Mr. Stone also distributed a list of suggestions and recommendations which a school contemplating team teaching might want to consider.

John P. Deason reported the findings of the portion of the survey dealing with teaching aides (personnel). The survey was concerned with the effects of using aides on better salaries, better use of teacher time and competence, kinds of duties being performed by aides, and the kinds of people recruited as aides. The five categories of aides reported are listed in order of most to least commonly reported:

1. *Student teachers* performed professional tasks under the guidance of a teacher
2. *College trained adults* were used part time and full time to assist teachers in professional and semi-professional duties (Composition aides were most commonly used.)
3. *College students* who were not aiming to teach but were lured to assist teachers with correction of papers and other duties on a part-time basis
4. *Clerical assistants* who performed non-professional duties
5. *General aides* who supervised study halls, lunchrooms, playgrounds—paid and volunteer

The discussion which followed, widely participated in by audience and panel, was centered around the following questions:

1. To what can we point which indicates that quality of education has been improved?
2. What provision is made for supervision in a team-teaching situation?
3. Will a principal find too many schedule conflicts developing if a great many teams are organized?

4. Will staff utilization practices work in a small high school?
5. Can slow learners benefit from team teaching?
6. Does closed-circuit TV require team teaching?
7. Have effective and low-cost moveable walls been developed?
8. Do teaching teams organize across departmental lines?

WHAT IS HAPPENING IN THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY IN THE CLASSROOM AND IN CLASS SIZE—REPORT OF A SURVEY

(Arranged by the Committee on Staff Utilization, NASSP)

Chairman: Joseph O. Loretan, Associate Superintendent, Division of Junior High Schools, New York City Public School, Brooklyn, New York

Presenters:

John F. Erzinger, Principal, Nicholas Senn High School, Chicago, Illinois

Edwin R. Tillapaugh, Principal, Downsview Central School, Downsview, New York

Stephen Romine, Dean, School of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado

Interrogators:

S. P. Bomgardner, Principal, New Cumberland Junior High School, New Cumberland, Pennsylvania

Barney Hays, Principal, Highland Park High School, Topeka, Kansas

Stanley H. Lorenzen, Principal, Staples High School, Westport, Connecticut

Summary of the Presenters recorded by Ira Singer, Staff Associate, Committee on Staff Utilization, NASSP

MR. LORETAN welcomed the group and introduced Stephen Romine who presented the background of the Committee on Staff Utilization and briefly discussed the purposes of the survey questionnaire. He emphasized that the survey was primarily taken in order to determine the extent to which certain practices were in operation or being contemplated. This six-state questionnaire was sent to all secondary schools in New York, Georgia, Illinois, Michigan, Colorado, and California. These states were selected simply because they represented the geographical distribution of the members of the Committee. Practices surveyed related to such innovations as team teaching, student grouping for special purposes, schedule changes, teacher aides, and technological devices. Mr. Romine then stated that the survey report on team teaching, teacher aides, and

schedule changes had been reported to an earlier workshop and that John Erzinger and Ed Tillapaugh would discuss technology and class size (student grouping for special purposes).

John Erzinger emphasized the need for changing facilities design along with curriculum and other educational areas. He cited *Images of the Future* by J. Lloyd Trump as containing useful material concerning this area. He pointed out that the printed and spoken word were insufficient communications media. Mr. Erzinger cited various automated devices needed to supplement the written and spoken word. These devices would also free the teacher to attend to the more creative and demanding tasks of planning and executing superior instruction.

Mr. Erzinger cited the following evidence: (2,177 schools reporting)

1. *Use of ETV*—One of eight schools used ETV in social studies and English; four per cent were contemplating the introduction of ETV.
2. *Airborne Telecast Facilities*—Six per cent of the schools reported such facilities available.
3. *Overhead Projectors*—Twenty-two per cent of the schools were using these in science, social studies, English, and mathematics (in that order of frequency).
4. *Reading Accelerators*—One of every five schools reported the use of these.
5. *Language Laboratories*—One of every eight schools (approximately one third of all senior high schools in California alone) reported operative language labs.
6. *Closed-Circuit TV*—Fewer than one of every hundred schools were involved in closed-circuit TV.
7. *Teaching Machines*—Two to three of every one hundred were using automated devices (programmed instruction).
8. *Tape Recorders*—More than fifty per cent reported use of tape recorders in foreign languages and English.
9. *Data Processing*—Very few schools are now using data processing equipment for schedule making.

The two devices most extensively used are the tape recorder and overhead projector. Mr. Erzinger pointed out the questionnaire did not attempt to elicit the kinds of procedure, reasons for doing or not doing certain things, or problems involved unless the responder wished to explain these items in an open-ended response. The attempt was primarily a study of the spread and acceptance of these various devices.

Mr. Edwin Tillapaugh illustrated a few cases of schedule modification. He mentioned that Jack Stone in San Diego had created two 50-minute periods for large-group instruction and then broke the groups into smaller periods.

Other schools reported the use of back-to-back periods and the creation of extra periods. He cited the study, *Small Schools Report on Flexible Schedule* (Catskill Project) as a description of various devices. Large-group instruction was not being used extensively in the Catskill region

in K-12 schools of 300 students or less enrollment. He reported further that 125 schools in the six-state survey reported the use of some type of individual schedule. He also pointed out that 625 out of the 2,177 schools reporting cited the operation of summer courses in English.

There is a high correlation, Mr. Tillapaugh stated, between the employment of large group-small group instruction and independent study with the use of teaching teams.

Mr. Tillapaugh said that a report on the six-state survey would be published in the near future. The report will also include detailed descriptions of promising practices discovered through the Survey Questionnaire.

Mr. Steven Romine reported that:

1. Eight per cent of the reporting schools were making facilities available beyond regular schoolhouses;
2. Grouping sections of fifteen students or less was common practice;
3. The combining of two or more classes for purposes of instruction, and scheduling for independent study were not widely adopted practices;
4. One surprising observation was the large percentage of schools active in various practices as opposed to the small number contemplating use of these practices;
5. Mr. Romine cautioned that the responses on a number of questionnaires were colored by such conditions as inadequate facilities, lack of teacher preparation, and high enrollments.

The following questions were asked and discussed by interrogators and members of the audience.

1. How can the schools best provide for the employment of teaching machines?
2. Must teacher teams include teacher aides?
3. Would the Committee publish a directory of schools active in various areas of the survey?
4. How could the library be utilized to a greater degree than is presently the case?
5. Could any of these materials be purchased through Title 713 of the NDEA? Could the Committee report on the relationship between NDEA and these devices?
6. Could the Committee develop a report on interim steps leading to the development of various staff utilization practices?
7. With new and expanded use of A-V equipment, how can we best provide for the maintenance of such material?

Spirited discussion ensued on the above issues and Mr. Loretan closed by citing the value of the workshop in providing ideas, evidence, and information.

Part II

First General Session

Saturday, February 11, 11:00 a.m.

BALLROOM, COBO HALL

Presiding: James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania

Presentation of the Colors: R.O.T.C., Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan

Pledge of Allegiance: Led by Lt. Col. Gersen L. Kurshner, Professor of Military Science, Commanding Officer

Audience: Singing of *The Star-Spangled Banner*

Invocation: The Rev. Frank P. Madsen, D.D., President, Michigan Synod of the United Lutheran Church, Detroit, Michigan

Music: Band, High School, Benton Harbor, Michigan; Bernhardt M. Kuschel, Director; Donald L. Ihrman, Principal

Greetings:

The Honorable Louis C. Miriani, Mayor of the City of Detroit

Samuel M. Brownell, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan

Harold E. Jones, Principal, High School, Mount Clemens, Michigan;

President, Michigan Association of Secondary-School Principals

Address:

INDIVIDUAL COMPETENCE AND THE NATIONAL WELFARE

DAVID D. HENRY

IN THE development of American life in all of its aspects, the welfare of the individual and the fulfillment of his personal capacities has been a basic premise.

Concern with the individual has been the theme of our poets and philosophers, the recurring and dominant note in political, religious, social economic, and cultural history of our nation.

"A man is a bundle of relations," said Emerson,¹ "a knot of roots, whose flower and fruitage is the world." Still more specifically Emerson made the point: "The true test of civilization is, not the census, nor the size of cities, nor the crops—no, but the kind of man the country turns out."

¹ Emerson, R. W., *ESSAYS: "History," First Series (1841)*.

David D. Henry is President of the University of Illinois.

From our concern for the individual flows our respect for the minority as well as for the majority. We thus have interpreted democracy to encompass both individual and group welfare. The evolved balance of rights and privileges among individuals, minorities, and majorities is an historic feature of the American way.

Public education is rooted in the concept that the development of the individual is central to all social and political activity. If the individual is to merit the key place assigned to him, his talents and abilities must be developed to the fullest. The opportunity for individual development is not only a matter of right—the faith in it and search for it are essential to survival of the democratic idea. Unless individuals act with maximum wisdom, society cannot.

Education gives meaning to our faith in the central place of individual welfare, a concern which distinguishes our national mode from that of our antagonists in the world scene, for education is the sustenance of freedom. The inquiring mind, the searching spirit, the quest for new frontiers are basic characteristics of the free society. Bounded only by integrity and honesty, the search for truth is a natural outcome of sound education.

President John Hannah has reminded us that the tyrannies of the world have no regard for the education of the individual. There, he is servant to the state. "Dignity of the individual has been cast aside by them as a concept obsolete in the atom age. An individual's worth is judged by them in terms of what he can do to advance the interests of his masters. Education is for them a weapon to be wielded like missiles and atom bombs in a struggle to the death against the humanitarian ideals we hold to be so precious.

"We, who believe in the dignity of the human spirit, must preserve educational values for what they can do both for the individual, as an individual and as a citizen of a free nation."²

In contemporary daily living there are many influences to submerge the individual into intellectual conformity, into patterns of social behavior, or into group responses to propaganda symbols. We now deal in mass communication, mass statistics, mass images, the engineering of mass consent. Mass demonstrations and opinion pools too often take the place of individual analysis and conclusion.

The schools will remain one of the great forces for the conservation of individual opportunity and fulfillment as long as human values are celebrated in the classroom and the welfare of the individual student is a first concern. The statistics of mass education are not frightening if there is room for the individual, if he has alternatives of program from which to choose, and if the conditions of education are organized for his learning as an individual student.

² John Hannah. An address at a meeting of the American Council on Education, October 6, 1960, in Chicago.

Indeed it is mass education which gives meaning to our concern for individual development because mass education is nothing more than the education of many individuals. If we should choose instead a system which would select some individuals for education and reject others, the basic character of American life would change.

Education is the essence of the democratic hope. It is our formula for freedom, and is so recognized around the world. In providing "social mobility," education keeps alive the aspiration of every person that he and his children will have an opportunity to improve their lot. Democracy does not promise there will be no economic or cultural dividing lines. It *does* promise that everyone has a chance to cross such lines if he has the will and ability to do so.

There is no more dramatic story than the working of the educational process in the lives of people. Consider the journey of the poor boy from the city slums to his position as business tycoon; the road traveled by the lad from the farm to the life of scholarship; the achievement of the minister's son as he makes a career as world diplomat; the development of the street urchin into the influential preacher; the change of the immigrant boy into the national leader.

Education is essential to the morale of the nation. Whether or not the child of today takes advantage of the opportunity of tomorrow, the existence of the opportunity for an education is a major influence upon his life, his attitudes, his hopes, his aspirations. The schools underwrite his hope that he, too, may learn how to grow and to develop and prepare for any task for which he is capable. The schools are the symbol of that tradition for they are the means for continuing individual improvement.

Further, education is the means of the individual's spiritual and cultural fulfillment. "Man cannot live by bread alone" but only by development of his talents and understandings can he develop his own "good life" in relation to his fellow men and his God.

The social interest in the individual must always be before us, also. "A modern society is dependent every hour of every day upon the capacity of its people to read and write, to make complex judgments, and to act in the light of fairly extensive information," says John Gardner.³ "When there is not this kind of educational base on which to build, modern social and economic developments are simply impossible. And if that base were to disappear suddenly in any complex society, the whole intricate interlocking mechanism would grind to a halt.

"... I doubt that many Americans recognize the extraordinary extent to which education has gained a central position in our national life. It is no longer on the edge of things; it is in the middle of the stage. It has become one of our deepest and most persistent national concerns."⁴

³ John W. Gardner, "The Strategy of Freedom." Address delivered at McGraw-Hill Book Co., 50th Anniversary Celebration, Dec. 1959, pp. 2, 3.

⁴ *Ibid.*

Indeed, education is the mainspring of the dynamics of American growth. The education of the consumer, the training of the expert, the discovery in the research laboratory, the service of the professions, the preparation of the leader in all walks of life are indispensable to the economic well-being of the nation.

There are other basic factors in the national welfare which are dependent upon the education of the individual and the effectiveness of the schools.

The school system contributes to cohesiveness in America life. Schools are the neutral ground where partisans on all other issues—religious, economic, political, social—may join in a common effort for improvement in the public welfare. The public schools belong to all the people, all the time, and must, therefore, have political immunity and complete social understanding and support.

Education is the foundation of effective national defense. It is easy to forget this premise in an age of missiles and nuclear warfare. From the invention of new weapons to their use in the field, from the plan of the smallest military unit to the strategy of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, national defense is an educational process and is built upon the effectiveness of the schools. Dependent upon a citizens' military force, individual understanding of the purpose of national defense is the heart of its success. Citizenship education is the first schooling of the good soldier in a democracy.

Education is the training ground for democratic action. The motivation for good citizenship begins in the schools as does the identification of the responsibilities of public leadership. The great traditions of the Republic learned here are the inspiration for sustained citizen responsibility.

We are committed to a system of mass education in the interest of the cultivation of the individual—every individual—and in the interest of national competence. Hence, we must be alert to the conditions which would reduce, limit, or modify educational opportunity.

There are many conditions in 1961 which threaten educational opportunity as we have understood it. There are more people to educate. The costs are higher. There is more to learn. The problems of organization are larger and more complex. The threat will be met, however, by the extent to which we build our policies and procedures on the assumption: America's greatest resources are her human resources, her brain power, and the freedom of people to work where they will, at what they will, and the opportunity for an education to prepare for that choice. As long as we harvest the talent of the nation, from a broad base, encourage its freedom of choice, and provide for its cultivation through education, we may have confidence in our national achievement in the economic and scientific competition of the world.

The theme of this conference, "Individual Competence and the National Welfare" is also a major point of reference in the recently published

report of the President's Commission on National Goals: "The development of the individual and the nation demand that education at every level and in every discipline be strengthened and its effectiveness enhanced."⁵

The report translates the theme into a contemporary challenge. "Annual public and private expenditure for education by 1970 must . . . double the 1960 figure." Also, "a higher proportion of the gross national product must be devoted to educational purposes."⁶

All of this is to the end that we shall "preserve and enlarge our own liberties . . . meet a deadly menace, and . . . extend the area of freedom throughout the world."

To meet the challenge of the nineteen sixties, "every American is summoned to extraordinary personal responsibility, sustained effort, and sacrifice."⁷

To document the conclusion of the Commission on National Goals as to what must be done to improve the American school system as a means of enhancing individual competence for the national welfare, a long list of statistics might be cited. Equally important motivation for action is the realization that many needs do not submit to exact measurement. What is the national loss when only half of the students who start school finish high school? How do you define the national deficit which arises from the fact that there are as many of college ability who do not go on to college as are enrolled? How do you describe the tragedy of the unborn idea, or of the career that might have been?

Walter Lippmann concludes: "The general picture is that of a nation which has outgrown the capacity of its school system. . . . Our present expenditure is geared to an earlier age before the changes in population, economics, and the requirements of the world position of the United States."

We find ourselves, in educational matters, "swimming upstream against the interests of a public that thinks everything else more urgent,"⁸ to quote Mr. John Gardner. Instead, education should be "our national preoccupation, our passion, our obsession."⁹

We are held back not by lack of capacity or power. As a people, we can accomplish what we set out to do. Our choices, not our means, will be decisive. Our national priorities will determine our educational achievement.

A MEANS TO NATIONAL ACTION

To achieve the goals of national welfare, it is not enough to be clear as to what they are; it is not enough to celebrate the philosophy of individual opportunity which has been historically meaningful and which

⁵ *New York Times*, November 28, 1960, pp. 22-23.

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ John W. Gardner, "The Servant of All Our Purposes," Carnegie Corp. of New York, Annual Report 1958, p. 17.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 15.

holds promise today for the solution of problems in the contemporary world of domestic stress and international tension. We must also possess the mechanisms for analysis of what needs to be done, mechanisms for translating philosophy and need into action.

A major handicap to progress in national educational affairs is the number of disparate voices on educational problems and issues, the scattered authority in educational matters, locally, state-wide, and nationally, and the lack of a central means of appraisal and recommendation for education in the nation as a whole. Indeed, it is difficult for most observers even to think of education in national terms.

It is ironic that while the expectation for national growth and improvement is so high, we are not organized to give public attention to the educational means to that end. A national program for strengthening education remains to be conceived, let alone written; and the state, local, and private constituencies of our schools are only beginning to understand what must be done. Recreation and luxuries command an increasing share of our resources as we try to decide how much to pay our teachers and how to put an educational roof over our heads.

Task forces have been created, commissions and committees have reported, White House conferences have been held, national conventions have adopted resolutions, but there is no single place where the American people can turn for an authentic and clear appraisal of the conditions of education or a measure of what should be done to achieve national goals. Continuing machinery does not exist for effectively identifying fundamental issues and problems. We now have no way to attain a national focus for an organized look at the condition of schools, colleges, and related programs.

The diversity of education in the United States is a prized and cherished tradition. Diversity and decentralized responsibility have made possible the freedom of the schools—freedom from national controls, governmental or private or propaganda. However, diversity and freedom do not produce a natural or readily available clear authoritative view of the state of education nationally.¹⁰

The Second Report to the President of the United States from the Committee on Education Beyond the High School, in July 1957, reviewed the major Federal programs involving education, particularly those which deal with education beyond the high school, and pointed out that relevant information concerning them was scattered among some twenty different departments and agencies. No single agency maintains current and accurate information even on the programs involving the Federal government.¹¹

¹⁰ It is something of an anomaly that a Presidential Science Advisory Committee was created before one is established for education and that reports of that Committee have dealt with ways and means of strengthening education in its relationship to science.

¹¹ President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School, Second Report. Washington, D. C., July 1957, p. 93.

It might also have been pointed out that there is no continuing collection of information *about* education as a whole which is complete and up-to-date and in a form which can be the basis of a clear appraisal of the condition or nature of education in the United States. The U.S. Office of Education has performed heroically in this situation, particularly in recent years, but it had had neither the authority nor the resources to perform this over-all task, nor would its recommendations necessarily have been heard at the highest levels had it done so.

With relation to national planning, the Report continues, "the farmers and the businessmen are much better served by their government" who would not "tolerate the deficiencies of facts and of assistance in planning that are experienced by the educational community—which includes all citizens. . . ." ¹²

Although dealing with only a segment of education, the 1957 Report of the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School should be credited with giving a strong public push to the idea of creating new machinery to advise the President on the national state of education. It pointed out that the Committee came into existence because of a "genuine need for a group of laymen and educators to take an over-all look at education beyond the high school in this country, to lay their findings before the American people, to make them aware of critical issues, and to stimulate needed action. The Committee has had but a brief time to perform these tasks, but the point is that they should be worked on continuously." ¹³

Recalling that a national advisory committee on education was authorized by law in 1954 but never appointed, the Committee questioned whether the proposed body "was established at a high enough level or in large enough terms to do all that is needed or to command sufficient respect. . . ." ¹⁴

Further, "In the light of the serious national and international problems that require the United States to be educated to its full capacity, the occasional appointment of temporary committees is inadequate to deal with the needs for national leadership. . . . The Committee believes . . . permanent machinery be created, with provision for broadly representative lay and professional advisers, to keep under continuous scrutiny all Federal programs affecting education beyond the high school and to advise the President and the heads of appropriate Federal agencies with respect thereto." ¹⁵

The Committee was not specific as to what machinery should be created and it was unduly sensitive, in my view, as to the prerogatives of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. It called upon the President to direct the Secretary to develop the specific proposals instead

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 15.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 25.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

of asking for a Council of Advisers to the President. Further, it did not differentiate clearly between the administrative responsibility of coordination of education services within the Federal government and the separate function of assessing the status of education in the nation.

Nonetheless, the Report of the Committee on Education Beyond the High School did suggest the idea which has had more forceful and more specific expression by later national reports. It wanted to assure "that the American people will be regularly informed of important trends, prospects, and the over-all state of education in this country."¹⁶

The late Beardsley Ruml stated that this recommendation of the Committee was potentially the "most constructive and far-reaching of all the Committee's recommendations in its Second Report."¹⁷ He saw its applicability "to all education of public concern whether before, during, or beyond the secondary level."¹⁸

Mr. Ruml himself had in March 1956 proposed an Education Act to parallel the Employment Act of 1946 and drafted a Bill which set forth in detail the provisions which might be enacted. He saw clearly that setting up a Council of Educational Advisers would "not reduce the purposes and activity of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, any more than the Employment Act limited the work of the Department of Commerce, the Department of Labor, or the Treasury."¹⁹

Significant support for the idea of a Council of Presidential Advisers on Education came in 1960 from three national reports.

The Seventeenth Assembly of the American Assembly convened on the subject, "The Federal Government and Higher Education," stated: "Education is a vast and a vital national concern," said the Final Report. The President, the Congress and the public should have up-to-date, frequent, regular, and authoritative official information. To achieve this there is a need for a Council of Advisers on Education in the office of the President. It should be established by law and perform a function analogous to that of the Council of Economic Advisers."²⁰ The remainder of the recommendation reflects the general points of the Ruml proposal and parallels two other Reports in 1960.

The Task Force Committee on Education which recently reported to President Kennedy recommended that "the President take immediate action to establish a President's Advisory Committee on Education."

"Such a move," said the Task Force, "will demonstrate that the President believes that education is one of the truly fundamental and important requirements for the preservation and development of the American

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

¹⁷ Beardsley, Ruml, "Comments on the Second Report to the President, by the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School"; Fenn College Press, Cleveland, Ohio, 1958, p. 1.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

²⁰ The American Assembly, Columbia University; "The Federal Government and Higher Education," Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall, 1960, p. 199.

society and will place the field of education on a level with that now enjoyed by Presidential advisory groups in both science and economics."²¹

The recently issued Report of the President's Commission on National Goals also makes the same point.

"Education has become a centrally important activity in our national life. It must be represented at a high level in government. The present organizational structure is inadequate and should be altered."²²

The Report recommends that there be created a separate Department of Education at Cabinet level or a National Education Foundation patterned after the National Science Foundation. But while this change is being debated and formulated, a more modest action could be initiated at once:

"Steps should be taken to create a Council of Educational Advisers, responsible to the White House, but working closely with the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. Such a Council would exercise no direct authority, but would be an effective voice both in government and in the educational community."²³

The three major national reports in 1960 cited here all call for a new educational body to have the President's attention. Bills for the purpose have been introduced into the Congress,²⁴ and many organizations and authorities have spoken to the same point.²⁵ It appears that a broad consensus have been reached on the need for a national platform for education.

In the several discussions, reports, and debates, which have had influence in the formation of agreement on the general point, there is not a clear definition as to the specific functions to be performed by the new Council. Confusion on what the Council is to do may delay legislative action or be transmitted to the work of a newly created organization.

While three functions pertaining to education have been discussed as a part of the need for a new national agency, I believe only one of them should be assigned to a council of Advisers to the President.

The three functions are:

1. *Coordination of relations with education within the Federal Government.* The need for coordination is clear. For example, more than 40 agencies of the Executive Branch of the government now have programs that directly affect higher education. At least a dozen Congressional committees have authority to act on one or more of these programs and some committees are conducting their own studies of education independent of the reports from the Executive Branch.

²¹ *New York Times*, January 7, 1961.

²² "Goals for Americans," the Report of the President's Commission on National Goals; Prentice-Hall, 1960; p. 98.

²³ *Ibid.*

²⁴ Cooper, J. S., Senator, "A bill to make the Committee on Education established by the Act of July 26, 1954, advisory to the President. . . ." (86th Congress, 1st Session, Senate Bill 2727, September 15, 1959).

²⁵ Legislative programs of several national educational organizations.

While coordination is needed, it is both politically impossible and organizationally undesirable to place an administrative authority in the Office of the President which would stand between the president and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and other Department Heads concerned. Coordination in educational matters within the Federal government probably can be most expeditiously achieved by enlarging the responsibilities and expectations of the present Cabinet Officers having the largest responsibility in educational affairs, the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, or by creating a new cabinet office for education.

2. *A national voice to education.* Dean John H. Fisher of Teachers College, Columbia University²⁶ has described a possible National Council on Education to be chartered by the Congress as the American Red Cross and other national groups are chartered. Like these, it would not be financially supported by the Federal government but by contributions.²⁷ With a staff, standing committees, and resource people on a consultant basis, the Council would speak from a national platform to education across the land on curriculum, organization, procedures, standards, and all matters related to the improvement of education. "The sole purpose of the enterprise would be to explore and illuminate the continuing relation between education and our national purposes."²⁸ "For the first time, we could have a group with the opportunity, the freedom, and the resources to view American education as a totality, or to work with the problems of any segment of the whole enterprise."²⁹

Whether or not one accepts this plan, Dean Fischer has clearly differentiated the function of speaking nationally to education from that of coordinating activities within the Federal government. It is an important distinction. To overlook it is to invite the possibility of undue and improper Federal influence on education.

3. *If speaking to education with a national voice is one function* and coordination of education programs within the Federal government, a second; a third remains—the appraisal of the national status of education, for the benefit of the Executive Branch, the Congress, and the American people.

A Council of Advisers to the President can be justified for this sole function. It would have no administrative responsibility, and would, therefore, not interfere with existing Federal departments. It would

²⁶ Fischer, John H., "A 'National Council' Would Define Education's Goals," *The Nation's Schools*, December 1960; Vo. 66, No. 6, p. 52.

²⁷ In June of 1956, the writer suggested to an educational conference sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation that, in the absence of formal government machinery for national analysis of the problems of education, a program might be carried forward under the aegis of a private organization. It was pointed out that while most educational problems will be solved at the local and state level, definitions and solutions must be in a national context and machinery for this purpose could be established more quickly under private auspices than through the Federal government.

²⁸ Fischer, John H., *op. cit.*

²⁹ *Ibid.*

not be a Federal agency to influence the schools. Its views would be unencumbered and uninfluenced by administrative and political concerns within the Federal government and they would not pretend to reflect the professional approach to essentially educational problems. The Council would be simply the national instrument for the appraisal of the condition of education as the Council of Economic Advisers and the Council of Science Advisers now speak to the President, and through him to the Congress and the nation. Action programs would fall to those regularly responsible for recommending action, both within and without the government.

CONCLUSION

If individual competence is to be properly related to the national welfare, preserving the rights of the individual and conserving his potential contribution to group strength, the American schools, at all levels, must be strengthened for the tasks at hand.

Basic to a maximum national effort for educational effectiveness is the establishment of the means to give the American people and their government a comprehensive, objective, multiple-dimensional view of the schools and to do so repeatedly and continuously.

I hope that the National Association of Secondary-School Principals will bring its professional support to proposals for clear and prompt action to encourage the practical implementation of the theme of this conference, "Individual Competence and the National Welfare."

Second General Session

Saturday, February 11, 2:15 p.m.

BALLROOM, COBO HALL

Senior High-School Section

Presiding: James D. Logsdon, Superintendent, Thornton Township High Schools and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois; First Vice President, NASSP

General Topic:

ADVENTURES IN ORGANIZATIONAL FLEXIBILITY

Interrogators:

Craighill S. Burks, Principal, High School, McLean, Virginia

Kenneth W. Lund, Superintendent, Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois

Maynard Ponko, Principal, Woodrow Wilson High School, Tacoma, Washington

William P. Strunk, Assistant Principal, Western Hills High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

Presentation:

THE TWELFTH-GRADE PROBLEM

CHARLES R. KELLER

I SOMETIMES wish that education was forbidden. Then we would rally to its defense; then we would support it as it should be supported. This cynical statement which I really do not mean derives from one of Mark Twain's gems, to wit: "Adam was but human—this explains it all. He did not want the apple for the apple's sake; he wanted it because it was forbidden. The mistake was in not forbidding the serpent; then he would have eaten the serpent."

Actually, things *are* in motion in education these days. Educators who have to make decisions and to act on them are challenged as never before. Because things are in motion in education, we have, or will very soon have, a twelfth-grade problem.

It was a twelfth-grade problem, not the one which we are facing today but related to it, that led me into education-in-the-large eight years ago. I had been a teacher of American history at Williams College for many years, and although I dealt with students in the thirteenth grade—or the freshman year of college—every day, like most college teachers I was almost unaware that there was a twelfth grade. The twelfth grade was in high school, and we had allowed what I have many times called a "sheepskin curtain" to be rung down between schools and colleges.

Eight years ago a small number of educators became concerned about the twelfth grade. Were able and ambitious students sufficiently challenged there—and in the freshman year of college? The Advanced Placement Program was the answer. This program includes: advanced, college-level courses in the schools for able and ambitious students; advanced placement examinations; colleges and universities giving credit and advanced placement to students who perform well in college-level courses in school and on the advanced placement examinations; subject conferences each June for school and college teachers, and a conference for school and college administrators too. This program has made a beginning of piercing the "sheepskin curtain" to which I have just referred.

The advanced Placement Program has had a healthy growth. Last May, students from 890 schools as compared with 18 in 1954 took advanced placement examinations. The number of students taking examina-

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tions has increased from 500 in 1954 to 10,500 last May. An even faster growth in the next few years is predicted.

Today, we are talking about a much greater, a much more important, a much more complicated twelfth-grade problem than we had eight years ago. And I might as well say here and now that I instinctively add "opportunity" whenever I use the word "problem." Therefore, a much greater, a much more important, and a much more complicated twelfth-grade problem *and* opportunity than we had eight years ago. Here is a brief statement of the twelfth-grade problem and opportunity:

In view of all the new developments in education, what should we teach in this key year which for all students who reach it is the final year of high school? For some of these students, it represents the final year of formal education—I refuse to use the word "terminal" in connection with education, for education should never terminate. For many of these students, more than half in 1961, it is the year before they go to college or continue their education in some other way. What should we teach, I repeat. How should we teach it? Should we even keep the twelfth-grade label in the face of a need for qualitative rather than quantitative measurement of educational progress? Is not what a student knows more important than the number of years he has studied a subject?

PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITY

I want to explore with you the causes of the problem and opportunity and then I would like to make suggestions for the twelfth grade. The problem is just emerging. We are identifying it in time; we are talking about it before it assumes such proportions that we hardly know what to do about it.

Let's consider causes. The adventures in organizational flexibility are in part responsible for the problem. So are the significant curricular developments which have taken place during the past few years since the curriculum has been in motion. The widespread concern for excellence in education is the root of it all.

The Advanced Placement Program has stirred things up. When college-level work was begun in the twelfth grade, the questions were: How much college-level work can and should a school offer? To what extent should Advanced Placement work constitute the twelfth grade for how many students? More important have been the effects of the Advanced Placement Program on lower grades and on curricular thinking for these grades. Once questions were raised about the work of the twelfth grade, it was natural to ask about the work of the eleventh grade, the tenth grade, the ninth grade, and even lower grades.

The Advanced Placement Program has by no means operated alone. In most subjects in many schools, the curriculum has been in motion. With the revolution which is occurring in mathematics, you are well acquainted. No longer are subjects sliced into convenient year or term segments. Mathematics is becoming an integrated subject, with concepts taught when the students need to know them. In the twelfth grade in

many schools, students are studying "modern mathematics" or calculus. In some eighth grades, modern algebra is taught. The mathematics program before the eighth grade is being improved.

The conceptual approach is appearing in science, emphasizing students' ability to figure things out for themselves rather than simply to memorize facts. New physics, new chemistry, new biology courses have been recommended. In a number of schools, biology is now a ninth-grade subject, with resultant changes in the science program for grades ten, eleven, and twelve, and for the grades before nine.

Language laboratories and the oral-aural approach have brought new ways of teaching foreign languages which stress speaking and listening. In many school systems foreign languages are being taught before the ninth grade. We are learning, too, that two and two do not make four when it is two years of one foreign language and two of another. Three or four years of *one* foreign language are to be preferred.

National programs for improving the teaching of English have been established. They all stress writing—in *all* classes, not just in English classes. And quality reading, not quantity reading; the reading of complete items rather than snippets; and the introduction of the analytical and interpretive as well as the narrative and descriptive approach as early as possible.

The social studies—my own subject—is still in the educational doldrums. But some people—I am one of them—are speaking up for "history and social sciences" as a more exact and hence a more meaningful term than social studies, for more substantial content in courses and better reading, and for a sequential rather than a cyclical arrangement of courses. Teaching American history, for instance in survey courses in the fifth, eighth, and eleventh grades—and then again in college, with practically no consultation among teachers and with practically no attempt at articulation, must be stopped.

PROGRESS OF THE PROGRAM

The Advanced Placement Program and the curriculum in motion have had profound effects on the twelfth grade and down through the high schools and elementary schools. We have made considerable progress—some of us, that is, and up to a certain point. Now is as good a time as any to say that, although I know what is *not* being done in education and am acquainted with some of its weak points, I like to stress what *is* being done and education's strong points. Unlike many vocal critics of education, I do not believe in generalizations, nor do I think that I can stimulate by continuous destructive criticism. The story is told of a first-grade teacher who drove her car into a garage door and dented a fender. One version has the teacher, infected by the "Why Johnny Can't Read" teaching methods, climb out of her car, take a look, and exclaim, "Oh! Oh! Oh! Look! Look! Look! Damn! Damn! Damn!" I reject this version. Instead, I think of all the first-grade teachers who have never run their cars into garage doors.

We have made considerable progress, I repeat—some of us and up to a certain point. *But*—it is occurring to some educators that we have been tinkering and doing things in a piecemeal manner. Certainly we have been doing too much thinking in horizontal rather than vertical terms. Certainly we have had too much segmentation in educational organization. All Gaul—unfortunately for the Gauls—was once divided into three parts. All education to too great an extent is now divided into five parts—elementary schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, colleges, and graduate schools. We have made education too much of a series of discontinuities rather than the continuous process that it should be.

"What should we do?" at least a few educators are asking. Here are their answers, which will affect education profoundly and will create new problems and opportunities for the twelfth grade. We should stop tinkering, we should stop piecemeal changes. In individual school systems, to some extent on the state and even the national level, and with colleges and graduate schools in the picture, we should rethink the entire educational process and structure. We should begin by formulating a set of purposes, with priorities and a philosophy of education clearly stated. We should then make plans to achieve these stated goals. Boldly, realistically but imaginatively, vertically not horizontally, with well-worked-out but flexible plans, kindergarten-through—well, even kindergarten-through-graduate-school curricula should be constructed for some students. There must be, of course, variations for the many who for one reason or another do not go all the way from kindergarten through graduate school. I agree with the statement once made by John Gardner, president of the Carnegie Corporation, to the effect that "we must have respect for both our plumbers and our philosophers or neither our pipes nor our theories will hold water."

Such planning will involve, right at the beginning, questioning our policy of having all children begin school at the same age. All children aged five are not alike. (You can see that I am now beginning to discuss adventures in organizational flexibility.)—We should think seriously, too, of ungraded elementary schools. In a few places we have such schools now. I like them. Why should students have to "wait" at just the time when they are most eager to learn and to move ahead? In the first four grades, the emphasis should be on reading, writing, oral communication, listening, viewing, mathematics, elementary ideas in science, music, and art—all effectively taught and stressing thinking as much as possible.

SOME OF THE PROBLEMS

Questions are being raised, too, about self-contained classrooms in elementary schools. How many teachers who teach *all* subjects can do justice to them all, with so many new developments in so many subjects? Instead of self-contained classrooms, we have in some elementary schools some departmentalization; in others, the beginning of team teaching, with what would conventionally have been three classes in the fourth grade;

for instance, handled by two teachers, one whose strength is in the humanities and the other whose strength is in science and mathematics, with the assistance of a clerk.

There is much talk these days about programmed instruction of which programmed books and teaching machines are a part. Good programmed instruction involves students directly in the learning process, and may induce them to learn things for their own sakes rather than for the teacher. It enables students to move ahead at their individual paces, and to learn whether their answers are right or wrong immediately rather than tomorrow or next week. Programmed instruction and teaching machines will not replace teachers. They will do effectively in some parts of education. They will free people to do things that only people can do.

The Advanced Placement Program, the curriculum in motion, and the adventures in organizational flexibility which I have mentioned have already created in some schools what I call a "dynamic eighth grade." Here, students study a mature English course that stresses the analytical and interpretive approach which I have mentioned, as well as the narrative and descriptive approach; a foreign language; an American history course which will not just be repeated in the eleventh grade; modern algebra; and a course in science, much less general and much more scientific than the usual eighth-grade course and leading to biology in the ninth grade. This kind of eighth grade means that the twelfth grade *must* be rethought; it helps to create the twelfth-grade problem and opportunity.

So will improved articulation which will be one result of the curricular rethinking which is being advocated. Not long ago I did not know what the word "articulation" meant as used in education. Indeed, I did not know that the word *was* used in education. If asked, I would have replied that it had something to do with the opposite of tongue-tiedness. But I have learned. Articulation means learning everything that can be found out about a student in one grade or one school and building the work of the next grade or school on what has been discovered.

We are doing a poor job of articulation at the present time. As a result, boring, de-motivating, expensive repetition goes on, and many students, duplication conscious long before their teachers, lose interest in their work. Improve articulation, and students in the twelfth grade will be ready for many new things.

The teaching of music and art as academic subjects will improve education in grades nine, ten, and eleven—so will team teaching and better use of the time and talents of good teachers; so will effective use of television and tape recordings. More students than we now think possible will be doing independent work. The more independent work, the more rethinking the twelfth grade will need.

So what do we do with the twelfth grade, faced with the twelfth-grade problem and opportunity? There was a time when I was ready to say, "Isn't it fine to reach a point where we would have to invent an Advanced

Placement Program if it did not already exist?" In other words, I was ready to accept Advanced Placement Program work as the solution to the twelfth-grade problem. No longer is this true. An Advanced Placement Program twelfth grade—for some students—would simply mean bringing down the freshman year of college into high school. Laudable in some ways, but unimaginative and not exciting. Such a procedure would deprive twelfth-grade teachers of the stimulation provided by opportunities to experiment. Some Advanced Placement Program work, yes. But we must be careful that what was used to break one form of inflexibility, to break one kind of lock step, does not in turn become a form of inflexibility itself, another kind of lock step.

NEED FOR REDEFINING AND REDESIGNING

Because of what has happened and what will happen in the earlier grades, kindergarten through the eleventh grade as a matter of fact, the twelfth grade clearly needs to be redefined and redesigned. Courses will be rethought both for content and for method. New courses will be introduced. Some Advanced Placement Program work, I repeat; and after the curricular rethinking which I have described, many more high-school students will be ready for such college-level work than we now think possible. Some of them will be ready for courses in philosophy, too. Logic, perhaps? I look forward to the day when Plato goes to high school.

Then, humanities courses will make sense in high schools, provided that there are teachers who can handle them. At present I frown upon these courses, in part because so few teachers know what to do with them. They try to crowd too much into them; they forget that every course should have some kind of discipline; they do not know their subjects well enough. But I also frown on such courses now because the existing curriculum in most schools does not get students ready for them. Lengthen students' thinking spans, redesign the curriculum vertically, and things will be different.

These cross-discipline courses, which can be stirring adventures, will benefit high-school students who quite understandably think that all knowledge comes wrapped in separate subject packages. The nature of humanities courses will vary from school to school, depending on teachers' subjects and interests. Many will undoubtedly combine literature and history, with music and art introduced to provide a new dimension for education. Good reading is essential, quality not quantity reading. In humanities courses—and in philosophy courses too—students will examine life and develop values. They will not be simply memorizing and regurgitating; they will be thinking and developing their powers of judgment.

There can be new social science courses. And science seminars in which students study not advanced physics, chemistry, or biology as

separate subjects, but aspects of the physical sciences or the natural sciences in some depth. Other new courses may appear.

I hope that there will be considerable team teaching in the rethought twelfth grade—sometimes large group lectures, sometimes the regular sections, sometimes conferences with teachers, sometimes real independent work. The more independent work, the better. The more independent work, the bigger libraries there must be and the more librarians. I hope that all students will not have to take five courses.

I trust, too, that twelfth-grade teachers—and all other teachers—will have better preparation as teachers, lighter teaching loads, and more regular opportunities for intellectual growth through year fellowships and summer institutes, than they now have. I call this my "Manifesto for Teachers."

THE PART OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

The twelfth grade should be dominated by the "draw it out" rather than the "pour it on" school of teaching. There should be a reduced emphasis on coverage in courses which should be "post-holed" for depth and centered on a few topics. I trust that the rethought twelfth grade will be less the frantic period that it is now, as many students are forced to think more about getting into college than about getting an education. When "getting-into-itis" kills intellectualism in schools, something is seriously wrong.

With the twelfth grade improved, schools and colleges must work together in a new way. I have referred to the beginning of a "piercing of the sheepskin curtain" as a result of the Advanced Placement Program. I know that the recent significant curricular developments have resulted from the cooperation of a few school and college teachers. There must be much more of this kind of cooperation. School and college teachers must meet and talk and plan together. They must become skilled practitioners of the art of articulation. And colleges should be concerned about the fact that many of their graduates do not read books. Colleges must put the emphasis on quality, not quantity. They must stop being places where too many students say, "I never have time to read anything other than assigned books." Why five-course programs for most students? Why not a three-year college for many students who will study in the redefined and resigned twelfth grade? A new twelfth grade will present problems and opportunities to colleges.

I have been stressing educational developments for students who go to college. Deliberately so, not only because here I am in the area that I know best, but also because I believe that good ideas in education, like water, flow downhill. I believe that developments of the kind that I have discussed will stimulate more students than we now think possible to substantial intellectual activity and achievement. Good curricula for students who are not able and ambitious and for those who have non-academic talents and interests there must be. Some of these will be

modifications of the curricular developments described here. Some will be vocational and technical, but not completely so, I hope. None of these curricula for students who are not going to college should be second-class. For all students who reach the twelfth grade, this final year of high school should be a culmination to an education which began many years before. The best college senior years that I know have been so designed.

And now may I conclude this talk on the twelfth-grade problem and opportunity by suggesting that all along I have been stressing *grades* too much? I have mentioned, with approval, ungraded elementary schools. We have, too, at least one ungraded secondary school; and some college people have learned that designating courses as freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior makes no sense. As I have said, we need qualitative and not quantitative measurements of students' progress. Hours, semesters, terms, years will not do. The Carnegie unit must go. What will really happen to the twelfth grade? At least there will always be a concluding, culminating portion of a high-school course.

Actually, the twelfth grade as such, I am sure, will be with us for some time to come. What we do with this grade is up to us. We have time. At this point, the opportunity outweighs the problem. I want to introduce into the twelfth grade—into entire school systems for that matter—education of the kind that Archibald MacLeish has recently defined as a wedding between "the knowledge of the fact and the feel of the fact." And I like the statement of Francis Bacon with which I close, "He that will not apply new remedies must expect new evils; for time is the greatest innovator."

Supporting Cast:

AN UNGRADED SECONDARY SCHOOL

B. FRANK BROWN

WHEN we attempt to assess the climate of education in 1961, we enter a torrid zone. Much of the equatorial heat generates from a practice which was developed in 1848 at the Quincy Grammar School in Boston. This is the notion of grouping students into grades according to chronological age. Once developed, this convention of ranking children vertically by grades spread widely. By 1870, American education, which had begun as a flexible organization, was lockstepped. The consequence was a curriculum splintered into uncompromising segments which we call grades.

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Chronological grouping became the universal vogue, and this same villain spawned the life adjustment programs which swept through the schools of America turning classrooms into circuses. Still uncertain of the proper direction after a hundred years under the unsuitable grade system, we are asking for more and more of everything with the hope that the future will provide justification for our requests. Because of this, our educational goals are mere hollow-sounding shibboleths. The plight of school organization may be attributed to an absolute fidelity to chronology, an illogical loyalty to inflexibility.

The grade rubric has been a gargantuan hurdle for secondary education, but its confinement, stultifying to the end, may at last give way to a new dimension. We must remove the antiquated, group-centered, vertical, grade structure and all of its rigidity. Once this obstacle is cleared, we can take a giant stride toward an ungraded system centered around the individual.

The non-graded organization has emerged slowly and in defiance of educational psychologists who have deterred real progress in this direction by omnipresent admonitions not to frustrate the child or upset his feeling of security by tampering with his chronological group. They have warned that a student must not be exposed to subject matter while sitting in the vicinity of other students two years his junior, or one year his senior, lest he become emotionally disturbed and lose his sense of belonging.

In conventionally graded schools, talented students are bored because there is no means for upward escape. The graded organization is little more than a cliché which tends to imprison talents by its indifference to intellect. By contrast, the non-graded arrangement permits students to leapfrog familiar courses and provides an elevated liberation from ennui.

The pace at which the student moves will vary with the individual and his intellectual development. The range of learning may be narrow or wide. The purpose of the ungraded school is to deal effectively with individual abilities. In this effort, the important thing is the skill and knowledge which an individual possesses—not how many years he has studied the subject. Under the graded organization, schools separate children into groups so they can be taught alike. This is exactly backwards and it refutes a system which recognizes and accepts the truth that each child must move as his ability permits.

The first step out of the organization debacle is to abandon the unreliable chronological age system of grouping and promotion. In its place, instruction should revolve around areas, each having a three-year span—the primary, intermediate, junior and senior high school. Within each sphere the individual should be permitted to move freely through as much subject matter as he can master. With the curriculum designed for mobility, at the senior-high level, the student who is able to do so

must be allowed to pursue college-level courses as early as the tenth grade. The curriculum throughout must remain open-ended in order that the student may escape forward. This will give the high-school curriculum unparalleled flexibility.

What does the ungraded senior high-school curriculum look like? In structure the plan is patterned after the ungraded primary school. Instruction is oriented towards the individual and entry into courses is determined entirely on the basis of performance on achievement tests. The curriculum becomes, in the words of Charlie Keller, "flexible and experimental—yet quality-centered and academically sound." Myriad schemes for grouping are unnecessary in non-graded structure. Neither IQ, better called probable learning ratio, aptitude, nor drive are considered accurate or reliable indications of performance. Regular appraisals through standard achievement tests are the only instruments needed.

Talented students scheduled into advanced courses, unhindered by grade obstacles, accomplish a great deal more than in traditional situations where an enriched course is restricted to grade level. The barrier of course sequence is eliminated. Students who have the capacity to do so are permitted to leapfrog courses in all fields. Instead of staccato promotions, the curriculum is fluid. This permits a smaller school to offer a broader and deeper program of studies. The talented have room to romp, and the slower student may pace himself into whatever excellence he can attain. This exciting kind of organization is structured so that students who are able to excell may do so; others are encouraged to do their best.

Bold new dimensions for secondary education are seen in these early images of ungrading. Students pursue courses in line with their achievement without regard to either the grade level or sequential arrangement. The scope remains, but it is broader—the sequence is gone. Unhampered by the rigid pattern of the grade, the individual is free to build a curriculum appropriate to his talents. He chooses a program challenging to his mind and directly linked with his rate of progress in scholarship. Achievement replaces grade level or class as the common denominator.

In non-graded situations, students no longer march forward all together tandem-style, one grade per year. Students in grades ten through twelve are clustered into classes hinged upon the following areas: advanced placement, accelerated (cluster), average (cluster), and remedial (cluster).

Each student programs his courses and pursues work at the level of achievement corresponding to his cluster group rather than grade level. The structure is so fluid that a student can conceivably pursue calculus at the advanced placement level while taking a remedial English course in which reading is taught at about the fourth-grade level.

The non-graded system creates a new and priceless relationship among boys and girls of similar abilities. Not only does it group students of the same ability level more efficiently, but it also tends to bring together students with similar career patterns. It contrasts strikingly with the graded type of organization where emphasis has been centered around time spent in school rather than educational accomplishment. Furthermore, late-blooming talents are more quickly accommodated. The flexibility of the ungraded curriculum permits the re-scheduling of individuals as soon as obscure skills are identified or matured. Students are not required to remain in the grade lockstep. Meeting the challenge of students' burgeoning talents helps them to evolve more rapidly.

What change is likely to appear in the secondary school as a consequence of ungrading? Varsity athletics may prove an early casualty, but this activity may disappear anyway, if we organize a new school system to meet our new needs. I predict that in the school year 1961 somewhere in these United States a courageous school board will attract national attention by ringing down the curtain on varsity athletics. The sounding of a curfew which tolls the knell of this parting activity will seem less than funereal to educators concerned with quality. The effect of ungrading will be to hasten the demise.

Contemplative as Grey, we must project our thinking outward, we must choose a country cemetery, a city park, or a quiet place and take time from our busy schedules just for thinking—and when we do this, we must relax. As the old colored woman once said, "I never run when I can walk, I never walk when I can stand, I never stand when I can sit, and when I sit, I sit loosely."

We, too, must come to grips with quietness, loosely sitting, and survey the educational scene which is currently one of restlessness sparked by the newest book or the latest criticism with never a passing thought for intelligent inquiry. We cannot join Rip Van Winkle in twenty years of sleep. Relax and reflect, but not in deluded repose as we have already spent a century of slumber in the Catskills of the vertical grade organization.

The schools are being made sharply aware of their limelight. How well they will play their role of destiny is yet to be seen. The playwright might appraise the temper of the American Public thusly. Education as a star is no novice. Heaven will witness the fact that she has played the provinces innumerable seasons. Spotlight beaming in center stage, critics scrambling for the aisles, uncertain patrons applauding feebly, there she stands. While in the wings, the authors rewrite Act I, re-doctor Act II, and revamp Act III. American Education has hit Broadway. In a way, American Education wishes it were possible to be back in Peoria.

SCHOOL-COLLEGE COOPERATION IN INSTRUCTION

BERNARD J. MCCORMICK

THE substance of my talk on School-College Cooperation in Instruction is drawn from an adventure in joint educational planning by the Carnegie Institute of Technology and the Pittsburgh Public Schools.

In the fall of 1958, several prominent American historians (one was Dr. Keller, others were Carnegie Tech professors) were on their way to a college campus from the airport. In general, they discussed the advanced placement courses that were developing in high schools. In particular, they speculated on whether the college had a role to play, indeed a duty to perform, in helping high schools prepare advanced placement programs. They agreed the college did have a responsibility in the matter and they would see what they could do about it. Now the public schools of Pittsburgh are no less committed to the pursuit of excellence in education than are you and the school districts you represent. We, too, are aware of the increasing insistence on quality education, and of the nation's concern over the conservation of its intellectual resources. Like so many school districts, we have been searching for ways (and just as diligently searching for the means) to improve the product of our classrooms. One of our great concerns is the learning experiences we provide for our more able pupils. What should we do with the curriculum content; with sequences of subjects; with standards of performance, both oral and written; with teaching method and materials; with techniques of study? In a word, what steps should be taken better to fulfill our responsibility to the able student? How better can we prepare him for the next level in his continuing education?

It was a fortuitous coincidence of timing that the spirit of inquiry into the education of the college bound high-school pupil by the Pittsburgh Public Schools coincided with the decision of Carnegie Tech to avail its academic resources to the Pittsburgh high school. The two institutions promptly agreed to collaborate on a project to establish advanced placement courses in history and English in several of the schools. I should like to describe to you now the implementation of agreement.

Specifics of the entire project, including cost sheets, were prepared by the proper officials of the two institutions. The cost of the project was underwritten by grants of \$75,000 by the Ford Foundation and \$12,500 by the A. W. Mellon Educational and Charitable Trust Fund.

Detailed planning for the AP project was begun early in 1959. Except for the guide lines provided by the College Entrance Examination Board in its Acorn books, there was little previous experience on which the planners could rely. There was immediate need to develop course syllabi,

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including content and teaching procedures. Badly needed were secondary teachers who were (1) familiar with methods of teaching in college, (2) aware of the nature and scope of subject matter taught in college, (3) secure in the knowledge of their ability to teach college-level courses.

Beginning with the spring semester, 1959, a high-school history teacher and a high-school English teacher were released from their teaching duties to meet daily on the college campus with their counterparts on the Carnegie faculty to prepare syllabi for advanced placement history and English courses, and to plan a summer institute for the training of the high-school teachers of English and history who were to fill the teaching posts in classrooms in September. This first association of high-school teachers and college professors is believed now to have been the key to the success of the project. The college people and the high-school people soon learned that each had much of value to share with the other. Any notions of a prestige hierarchy were dissipated. The idea of team effort by intellectual equals was firmly established.

During the spring semester, fifteen high-school teachers of English and fifteen history teachers were selected by the public schools as potential advanced placement teachers. All of the history teachers attended the AP history conference at Yale University in June. Five of the English teachers attended the English conference at Hamilton College.

From July 1 through July 28, the high-school teachers met daily with professors of English and history at Carnegie Tech to study and refine the advanced placement courses. Teachers and professors formed seminars to study in depth the literature which was selected for AP readings. Similarly the history teachers were engaged with professors in selecting and studying the basic subject matter issues which were to be the core of the history courses. Seminars for both groups were conducted in teaching method. All group meetings were deliberately planned to be small and intimate so that teachers and professors could exchange information, experiences, and ideas in a situation designed to make pertinent use of the creative thinking which emerged. In addition to participating in the seminars, teachers witnessed teaching as it functions in college by observing Carnegie Tech summer school classes in composition, literature, and history.

By the end of the summer, advanced placement courses were prepared in English, European History, and American History. Preparation of an introductory course to AP history to be offered to able tenth-grade pupils was well underway. We call it "Introduction to the Social Sciences." Textbooks, resource materials, and supplies were selected and ordered.

THE HIGH SCHOOLS' PART

While the teachers were preparing for their teaching assignments, the high schools concerned were preparing policies and procedures for the installation of the new courses. Critical to the success of the program was the identification of pupils who would be eligible for membership in the courses. In my own school, which sends more than half its graduates to

college, care in pupil selection was particularly pertinent. A pool of eligible pupils was prepared, and they and their parents attended an evening meeting to hear a detailed report on all of the implications of the cooperative project. It was at this meeting that the community learned that we were exchanging faculty members with Carnegie Tech and that one-half of the advanced placement classes in English and history would be taught by college professors. I had never before been associated with a school announcement that received as much community acclaim.

The project provided that one high-school teacher of English and one of history would each teach a college freshman class on the Carnegie campus. The teachers returned to their high-school classrooms in the afternoons. They did not teach advanced placement classes, but reported their college teaching experiences to their high-school colleagues. Dr. Robert Slack of the Carnegie English faculty and Dr. Ted Fenton of the Carnegie history faculty were assigned to teach at Allderdice High School. Both men were deeply involved in all of the preparatory work and both had had secondary-school teaching experience. At Allderdice, we had organized two classes in advanced placement English, two in European History, two in American History and two in the tenth-grade Introduction to the Social Sciences. One of the two classes in each instance was taught by a high-school teacher and one by a college professor. Each of the four high-school teachers also taught three regular classes of their subject. This provided for them a teaching load of four classes, one class less than the usual assignment. Dr. Slack taught one class of English daily and returned to the Carnegie campus. Dr. Fenton remained in the high school all day and taught one section of each of the three history courses. The history schedule was arranged so that when Dr. Fenton was teaching his counterpart was free and *vice versa*. This schedule arrangement was ideal in that it made it possible for the teachers and the professor to observe each other teach, to exchange classes, and, indeed at times, to share in the teaching of the same class. Daily conferences were the rule. As a result of these persons working together, lessons were planned, study assignments were laid out, tests were constructed, and results evaluated. This was school-college cooperation in instruction at its best. This was school-college articulation.

THE END RESULT

In the spring of 1960, pupils took the advanced placement examinations. We have been told by people with more experience with AP testing than we had that we should be very gratified with the results.

A number of the pupils were granted college credit or exemptions for their AP work. Others were enrolled in honor classes. But I believe there were even more important values than college credit. All pupils received quality instruction in depth in their subjects; their performances were stretched and sharpened by the rigorous disciplines of the courses. Pupils were taught to think; they were taught research techniques; they were

taught to confirm the validity of their sources and to search out original sources. What pupils said and wrote was subject to a critical analysis new to them. In other words, while we labeled the effort advanced placement, the outcomes of the courses would have been just as valid if there had been no possibility of college awards.

While I can support my opinion with subjective judgment only, I am sure the project had its effect on the whole school. As Lester Nelson of the Ford Foundation said, "You can't shake one thread without getting reaction from every other thread in a spider's web." Certainly the younger pupils in the school now have an inspiration to fulfill. They work to "make" the AP squad.

The teachers and professors confess that while they never worked so hard, neither did they ever have such a rewarding experience. Some of you will remember reading Dr. Fenton's article on his experience in the October 1960, issue of the *NEA Journal*.

The students who have graduated from high school and are in their first year of college have commended and thanked us for introducing them to college level work. They say that their courses were an excellent orientation to the rigorous performance standards expected of them by college professors.

THE SECOND YEAR OF THE PROGRAM

In this second year of the program, we are relatively on our own. The American History classes have been increased from two to four sections. Twice each week, all of the history pupils, eighty of them, meet for large-group lectures. Carnegie Tech professors are members of the lecture team, but are not doing any of the classroom teaching.

Because of the values accruing from its collaboration with the Pittsburgh schools, faculty members of Carnegie have been working this year with seventeen suburban school districts, assisting them in establishing quality courses for able pupils. This coming summer another institute for AP teachers will be conducted on the Carnegie campus for teachers from the Pittsburgh and suburban schools.

The burden of my talk was to relate to you the development of a project in which school and college faculties cooperated to achieve an educational goal. I am sure you know of other such cooperative efforts. Perhaps you have heard of the on-going project involving the University of Pittsburgh and its neighbor, Schenley High School, the so-called Pitt continuum. It seems to me that when a college and a high school are so located that communication between them is easy, it follows quite naturally that they should be mutually engaged in cooperative educational enterprise.

Those of us who were part of the Carnegie Tech-Pittsburgh Public Schools project think so much of it that we are even now planning another adventure in School-College Cooperation in Instruction. There could be no end to it.

A DEMONSTRATION GUIDANCE PROJECT

HENRY T. HILLSON

THE Board of Education of the City of New York adopted a program four years ago to increase educational opportunity in the public schools of the city. The program followed from a recommendation of a subcommittee of the Board's Commission on Integration, and was known as the Demonstration Guidance Project.

The primary purpose of the project was to identify and upgrade potential college students coming from a background of limited cultural experiences. The program was formulated and counseled by the Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance of the New York City School System. The College Entrance Examination Board sponsored and helped finance the program from its inception.

The first three years of the Demonstration Guidance Project at George Washington High School have been completed with the graduation of the first project class in June 1960. This has been one of the most intensive experimental programs ever undertaken by the Board of Education of New York City. It has enlisted the cooperative assistance of many groups and agencies; it has been followed with keen interest by educators throughout this country and abroad. It has been of particular concern to all those who are grappling with the many-sided problem of improving the educational achievement of pupils with backgrounds that have not been conducive to full educational development.

THE NATURE OF THE CLASS

The first group of students selected for the experiment entered the George Washington High School in September 1957, and graduated in June 1960. Two other classes in the experiment still remain in the school; one will graduate in June 1961, and one in June 1962. This report deals with the records and achievements of the first project class that graduated from the George Washington High School in June 1960. The project work for the pupils in this first group got under way in the junior high school in January 1957 and had something less than six months devoted to it there. Thus, the outcomes for this first project group of boys and girls are related almost entirely to their experiences in George Washington High School.

In order to appreciate the progress that the students in this first graduating class made during their three years in George Washington High School, it is necessary to keep in mind certain facts concerning them when they were admitted in September 1957 from the junior high school. The group consisted of 148 boys and girls. Its ethnic composition was as

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follows: 87 Negroes, 36 Puerto Ricans, 1 Oriental, and 24 others. Since the project was experimental in nature, many students were included although their records indicated that they had little or no chance of succeeding in academic work. The group was thus thoroughly heterogeneous.

The nature of the group can be seen from their junior high-school test data—their intelligence quotients, measured by verbal tests, ranged from 70-141; 70% had IQs below 100; 89% were below grade level in reading, and 88% below grade level in arithmetic. The *Iowa Tests of Educational Development*, given at George Washington High School in January 1958, showed 72% below the 50th percentile in social studies background; 70% below that level in correctness in writing; 63% below in general vocabulary; and 80% below in quantitative thinking. At the other end of the scale, 6% of the group had an IQ of 120 and above; 5% was one year or more above grade level in reading; and 3% was one year and above grade level in arithmetic. In the *Iowa Tests*, in the four categories indicated above, the group was 12%, 15%, 16%, and 10%, respectively, above the 70th percentile.

Many of the students in the project came from homes with serious family problems. Almost half the pupils had lost one or both parents. Poverty was a common denominator in the group.

In view of this situation, it is not surprising that many of them were badly handicapped by emotional problems that required careful diagnosis and treatment. Many of the students in the class were deficient in the basic skills of reading, writing, and computing, and were unaccustomed to meeting the normal requirements of academic work—the doing of homework, the completion of long-range assignments, the budgeting of time, *etc.*

THE SPECIAL PROGRAM

If any expectations of the experiment were to be realized, it was apparent from the beginning that a tremendous amount of individual attention would have to be given to the pupils to compensate for their deficiencies. Both in their subject classes and in their guidance program, the needs of the individual students would have to receive paramount consideration. We were given practically a free hand to devise the necessary program along with the personnel with which to carry it out. For the 148 pupils, 5 teaching positions beyond the normal quota were allotted, plus a full-time counselor and clerical assistant. Subsequently, a psychologist and social worker were added on a two-day a week basis. The additional cost, including the expenses of a rich cultural program, was approximately \$250 per pupil per year.

Since all the project students were, theoretically at least, aiming toward college, they were placed in the academic course, and every effort was made to meet their needs within that framework. In order to provide learning conditions that would be as favorable as possible, the students were grouped homogeneously in each subject class on the basis of test

data and school records. Ten separate classes, for example, were formed in English. In art appreciation, music, and health education, the grouping was heterogeneous. To afford the students intensive training in the basic skills of reading and writing, they were programmed for a double period of English every day. The registers of all the subject classes were well below normal. In English and science, the registers were 25 to 28, and in language and mathematics, only 10 to 15. To enable the project students to extend their social contacts, their classes in English, science, and the home room included an equal number of students from other schools with approximately the same potential as that of the boys and girls in the experiment. Most of these classes were kept together for a year with the same teachers, but considerable flexibility was permitted and pupils were changed from one group to another depending on their progress. Those who needed more help were tutored after school in small groups, and occasionally individually. The selection of teachers for the project classes was purposely kept representative of the entire staff, and included relatively new as well as thoroughly experienced teachers.

The guidance counselor worked very closely with the students and their teachers. He gave the teachers pertinent and detailed information about the scholastic and personal needs of the students. The teachers conferred with him frequently and consulted the considerable data he was able to make available. At the close of each term, they submitted to him evaluative reports on their students.

The counselor spent a tremendous amount of time interviewing individual students. More than two thirds of the students were interviewed four or more times a term—some were seen as many as twenty times. Students were counseled about their programs, their educational progress, their vocational plans, and such perennial problems as financial need, discord at home, and boy-girl relationships. The principal and the guidance coordinator also met with the students, individually and in groups.

CLINICAL SERVICE

From December 1957 on, the project students had the help of a psychologist and social worker, each serving one day a week for the balance of the first year, and subsequently two days a week. Approximately 25% of the class was serviced by the clinical team. The problems handled by the specialists involved acute emotional disturbances, severe social pathology, and some minor emotional difficulties. About half of the group referred to the clinicians benefited considerably. The others presented such severe personal and family problems as to require treatment over a long period of time. Help was afforded in many instances not only by the specialists, but also by the psychiatric facilities of the Bureau of Child Guidance and other community agencies.

But for the intensive clinical help these and other young people received, in all probability, they would not have remained in school. The report of the clinicians states that "for a great many students, con-

tact with the clinical services brought about a change in attitude toward their personal problems, their school work, and their home situations. They were given support and a measure of self-confidence. In the very attention they received, the students and their parents gained a sense of dignity and importance."

GROUP GUIDANCE

Group guidance was conducted by the counselor one period a week. In the students' first year in the high school, the group guidance focused on orientation to school, the importance of good citizenship, how to develop good study habits, how to prepare for tests and self-evaluation. In the next year, there was a shift in emphasis to the world of work and planning for college entrance requirements. The last year was concerned with the transition from high school to college and work.

The students had many resources open to them in planning for college. They used the school library with its large collection of books on careers and occupations, and they had access to the college reading room with its catalogues, brochures, and pamphlets on the colleges and special schools. In addition to the help given by their guidance counselor, the students had the services of the school's two college advisers and the administrative assistant, in charge of guidance, to help them with their plans. They received firsthand reports from George Washington graduates who were in college on the opportunities and problems they would face as college students. They also had many opportunities to hear guest speakers from various colleges, and speakers from specific areas of work.

To make their guidance as realistic as possible, the students viewed several films on colleges, and they also visited some of the four-year and two-year colleges in the metropolitan area. In the junior year, some of the students had the experience of spending a week end on the Amherst campus and at the University of Massachusetts, so that they might gain firsthand experience about campus life.

Many guidance lessons were devoted to instructing the students on the filling out of various forms, such as the applications for College Entrance Examination Board tests, admission to college, and scholarship aid from various sources. To insure accuracy, these forms were filled out by the students under the direct supervision of their guidance counselor. Parents were also assisted in filling out the college scholarship application forms.

THE TRANSMISSION FROM HIGH SCHOOL

During the senior year a great deal of attention was given to helping the students prepare for the transition from high school to college. Considerable time was spent in discussing the problems they would encounter in college, and the help they could expect from college personnel in resolving their problems. After the students graduated, they received a letter from the guidance director of the high school, reminding them of

some of the adjustments they would have to make on the college level, and advising them to take advantage of all the help that would be available to them.

In their senior year, provision was made for the students who were not going to continue their education, but who were going to work. Classes for them were established under the direction of the school placement counselor. In these classes, the pupils learned about employment opportunities, and received training for civil service examinations and in applying for jobs. Thirty students had jobs waiting for them on graduation.

THE OUTCOME OF OUR COLLEGE PROGRAM

What was the specific outcome of our college training and advisory program? Sixty students in the first project class are continuing their education beyond high school. Nineteen are in four-year colleges, fourteen in two-year colleges, and fifteen are attending colleges in the evening. One is in a school of nursing, six in a business school, one in a school of aeronautics, one in a technical institute, one in the Air Force Technical School, and two have been admitted to a special program in the Bronx Community College to help prepare for admission to college as fully matriculated students. Eighty-five per cent of those who completed the academic course went on to further education.

Some of the colleges and institutes to which the students were admitted are: Amherst, Columbia, University of Michigan, Howard University, Franklin and Marshall, Union, New York University, the University of Portland, the municipal colleges, the New York City and Bronx Community Colleges, the Fashion Institute of Technology, and the Farmingdale Agricultural and Technical Institute.

We are gratified with the number of graduates of the project group who are continuing their education. While we are pleased that some were admitted to highly selective colleges, we are also very happy that so many who might never have finished high school have gone on to further education.

COMPARISON WITH PAST RESULTS

It is difficult to make any truly valid comparison between results obtained by the project group and other students. However, we have used four previous classes coming from the same junior high school and graduating from George Washington High School as the most meaningful basis of comparison. The project group was somewhat superior to those with which it is being compared and the results should be better. However, even after taking this into consideration, the differences are impressive.

The median IQ for the project group was 92. For the four previous classes the median IQs were 85, 87, 90, and 90. Forty-one per cent of the project group went on to further education compared to an average

of 12% for three of the four previous groups for whom we have these data.¹ Forty-two pupils, or 28% of the project group completed the academic course of study, compared to an average of 11% for the four previous classes. Sixty-four per cent of the group graduated compared to an average of 47% for the four previous classes.

THE NATURE OF THE GRADUATING CLASS

To all those who had been closely associated with the project and who were present at the graduation exercises, it was gratifying and also very moving to note the recognition that so many of the project students received. Eleven of them obtained honors in one or more subjects. Four won New York State Regents scholarships. Three won seven medals or certificates for academic accomplishments. Three received four awards for outstanding citizenship records. One had the distinction of being a Commencement speaker. Three of the project students ranked first, fourth, and sixth in a graduating class of over 900. Some of these students did work far beyond anything that could have been anticipated. Four of these who did exceptional work came to us with IQs of 108, 128, 99, and 125. After two years here, the IQs were 134 for the first, and above 139 for the others. (139 is the maximum IQ measured by the *Pintner Test of General Ability Verbal Series, Advanced Form B*.)

The graduation of this group takes on far more meaning when we examine their qualifications upon entering George Washington High School. Of those who graduated with academic diplomas, 59% were retarded one year or more as shown by the *Nelson Reading Test* given after they entered the high school. Twelve of this group had been retarded two to four years. Fifty-one per cent of them had been retarded one year or more in arithmetic. Fifty per cent had IQs below 100 before entering George Washington High School. Four of the group came to us with IQs of 74, 83, 85, and 72; and reading scores, respectively, of 6.3, 6.5, 7.6, and 5.7. They had been handicapped by foreign language difficulties or personality problems. In the first eight months with us, they gained 3.2, 2.1, 1.3, and 2.9 years, respectively, in reading. In three years, their IQs went up to 106, 118, 98, and 96, respectively.

REACHING AND INFLUENCING THE PROJECT PARENTS

The school recognized that the parents had an important role to play in the project. Every effort was made, therefore, to acquaint the parents with the objectives of the program and the benefits that would accrue to their children from it, and secure their cooperation in making the program effective.

Contacts were often difficult to make, but every effort was made to reach the parents through telephone calls, letters, visits by the counselor

¹ The figures on further education represent admissions up to date. They will be subject to change depending on further admissions.

and social worker, and individual and group meetings at the school. Offers of assistance were made to solve such problems as medical needs, unemployment, and poor housing.

Where there was a poor response from the parents, efforts were made to reach older brothers and sisters, grandparents, aunts, and even neighbors. Parents who were recent arrivals from Puerto Rico and the South had to be re-educated in the folkways and *mores* of a different culture. They lacked an understanding of the social, emotional, and material needs of adolescents. They were not aware, and many were not interested, in the educational and cultural opportunities available to their children. Some felt that a girl should not have more than elementary schooling.

When a parent refused to accept our point of view, we would try to work with other relatives who could reach the parent. Where the parent was inflexible, we tried to build the child's inner strength to adjust to the situation.

The ultimate results were most heartening. There was a threefold increase in the number of letters, phone calls, and visits by parents to the counselor and the school.

Even after graduation of their children, many parents continued to contact the counselor. They asked advice, expressed gratitude, and informed the counselor of their children's progress in school or job.

CULTURAL ACTIVITIES

An extensive program of cultural activities was carried on for all the project students. The program included trips to museums, libraries, colleges, industrial plants, motion pictures, concerts, the ballet, and the theatre. Money was made available for all students who could not afford the expenses involved, although in most cases, however, the pupils insisted on paying a share of the cost. The trips that the pupils particularly enjoyed were those to the United States Military Academy at West Point, the Brookhaven Atomic Laboratory, and the Shakespeare Festival Theatre in Stratford, Connecticut, where they saw *A Midsummer Night's Dream*. Briefing sessions took place at school before each trip or event.

Many positive values resulted from the program of cultural activities. Over the three-year period that this first class was in high school, numbers of young people became faithful devotees of certain types of activity on their own initiative. Many who never before had been interested in music attended nearly every Sunday afternoon concert of the Philharmonic. Others developed a taste for the ballet and the theatre. From time to time, it was a source of great satisfaction to members of the faculty to see at concerts, the ballet, or the theatre, project students who had purchased tickets for these events on their own initiative.

INDIVIDUAL CHANGES IN IQ

The *Pintner Test of General Ability* (Verbal Series, Advanced Form B) was given to the project class in May 1959. Intermediate Form B of that test had been given to the same class in February 1956. One hundred and five (105) pupils took both tests.

It is interesting to note that seventy-eight pupils showed an increase in IQ; twenty-five showed a drop; two were identical. There was a range from a gain of 40 points to a loss of 31 points. Forty students gained more than 10 points; 6 students lost more than 10 points; 59 students had IQs within 10 points of the earlier results (38 higher, 19 lower, 2 identical).

In 1956 the median IQ in the *Pintner Intermediate Test, Form B* was 92.9; in the 1959 *Pintner Advanced Test, Form B*, the median IQ was 102.2. The changes in IQ in the project pupils are more significant, perhaps, in view of previous findings that the IQ of students with a community background of educational limitations goes down as the students grow older.

BRIEFING THE FACULTY

One of the factors essential for the success of a project of this kind is the necessity of having the entire faculty of the school understand the purpose and objectives of the program. Therefore, discussions relating to the project were held with the entire staff from time to time, and, at regular intervals, meetings were held with the project chairmen, teachers, and counselors. These meetings made possible an exchange of views and recommendations concerning the project. At these conferences the teachers were also briefed on the significance of their observations and the preparation of evaluative reports.

CONCLUSIONS

This report has told the story of a group of boys and girls, most of them limited in background, from their entrance into high school to their graduation. What have the results been? Thirty-nine more pupils finished high school than before; $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as many completed the academic course of study; $3\frac{1}{2}$ times as many went on to some form of higher education. Many developed interests in the theatre, concert, and the ballet. Many who had never shown any concern for books developed an interest in reading fine literature.

There were also many intangible results that were directly due to the project. These cannot be measured scientifically, but from our daily observation of the project students in the subject classes, in clubs, and social activities, we detected many important changes in their personalities. As their high school course drew to a close, it was apparent that many of them had developed poise, maturity, and a sense of self-worth. Most important of all their attributes was this new image of themselves, which enabled them to achieve in many areas and face the future with hope and confidence.

We believe that every part of the program was necessary to its success. Subject matter emphasis, guidance and clinical assistance, the cultural program, work with parents—all contributed to the final outcome. By far the most costly part of the program resulted from the additional teacher time used for subject matter accomplishment, but this was imperative to the program.

We have found that a thorough and solid educational and guidance program can succeed in discovering and developing abilities which otherwise may be lost to the nation, but we learned no easy way of accomplishing this. In three years we found no substitute for sound educational procedures that would enable young people to prepare themselves for college and careers. There were remarkable improvements in the scholastic work of some of the boys and girls, but we did not discover any dramatic devices or inspirational slogans that would keep these pupils at their studies year after year. Whatever was accomplished came as the result of hard, unceasing day-in and day-out work by teachers, counselors, and supervisors, as well as by the students themselves.

The most important thing we have learned from three years of living with the project is that there can be the promise of a good life for an untold number of boys and girls for whom, heretofore, there has been little promise. What was done at George Washington High School can be done everywhere.

Third General Session

Saturday, February 11, 2:15 p.m.

COBO HALL

Junior High-School Section

Presiding: G. Mason Hall, Principal, Senior High School, Edmonds, Washington; Member of Executive Committee, NASSP

Addresses:

REPRESENTATIVE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL RESEARCH STUDIES

EDWIN HINDSMAN

Unable to secure a copy of Dr. Hindsman's manuscript.

THE HIGHLY CREATIVE AND THE HIGHLY INTELLIGENT ADOLESCENT: SOME EXPLORATORY FINDINGS

PHILIP W. JACKSON

Unable to secure a copy of Dr. Jackson's manuscript.

Summary by: William T. Gruhn, Professor of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn.; Chairman, Committee on Junior High-School Education, NASSP

THE need for research on junior high-school problems today is greater than ever before in the history of this school. This is true for two reasons. First, the number of junior high schools in the United States is increasing sharply each year. From 1952 to 1959, the number of junior high schools in the United States increased by more than fifty per cent. During the same period there was also a large increase in the number of combined junior-senior high schools. In 1959, the separate junior high schools and the combined junior-senior high schools constituted more than sixty per cent of all types of secondary schools in the United States. The need for research on the junior high school today, therefore, is especially urgent so that we may have information which may be used by communities in establishing new junior high-school programs.

There is a second reason for needed research on junior high-school problems today. More new activities, approaches to teaching, and administrative practices are being introduced into the junior high school today than during any similar period in its history. Foreign languages are being taught earlier; there are many different kinds of honors classes for the more able pupils; new approaches in mathematics are being employed; there are classes for the mentally retarded; foreign language laboratories are being developed; and "speed" reading classes are being offered. We need much research to demonstrate the need for new approaches to teaching and the direction these approaches should take. Furthermore, we should study carefully the results of the new activities that are being carried on in the junior high school.

The discussion we have had this afternoon on research in the junior high school was not intended to give the answers to many problems. Rather, it was intended to raise problems which need further study. For example, we need further study of the basic philosophy of the junior high school; the kind of administrative, supervisory, and counseling staff needed for the program of the 1960's; what kind of pre-service preparation junior high-school teachers need; what place exploration has in the junior high school today, and many others. Some of these problems lend themselves to precise research; others need thorough study and discussion by principals and other leaders in junior high-school education.

The problems which have been raised here today will be summarized for further study. They may serve as the basis for discussion in future meetings for this association; they should be used by your state associations in planning their activities; and they should be brought to the

William T. Gruhn is Professor of Education, The University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut, and Chairman of the NASSP Committee on Junior High-School Education.

attention of faculties in our graduate schools and other agencies that may carry on organized research.

This program should, therefore, be just the beginning of a period of intensive study of junior high-school problems. Research, study, and discussion of junior high-school problems in an unprecedented fashion is essential to progress in this period of rapid expansion of junior high-school education.

Annual Banquet

Saturday, February 11, 7:00 p.m.

BALLROOM, COBO HALL

Presiding: James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania

Invocation: Bishop Marshall R. Reed, Bishop of the Michigan Area of Methodist Churches, Detroit, Michigan

Introduction of Head Table Guests: James E. Nancarrow, President, NASSP

Introduction of Foreign Educators: Paul E. Smith, Secretary, Committee on International Relations, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.; Consultant on International Educational Relations, NASSP

Music: Vocal and Instrumental Ensembles, Cooley High School, Detroit, Michigan; William Koerper, Vocal Director, Fred Shafe, Instrumental Director; Owen A. Emmons, Principal

Addresses:

THE NEW ERA AND THE NEW ISSUE

EDWARD BENNETT WILLIAMS

WHEN your officers asked me to speak here tonight, I wondered what I as a lawyer could say to a couple of thousand leading American educators that would occupy their time profitably. I quickly decided that I should talk to you about what I regard as a great issue of the new era into which we are entering. An issue to the resolution of which I believe that you administrators and we lawyers can make the greatest collective contribution. At a wonderful party like this and in the midst of this splendor and good fellowship, I am going to be so ungracious tonight as to try first to disturb you and then to move you.

Edward Bennett Williams is a noted trial lawyer, Washington, D. C.

We lawyers spend our lives daily coursing our energy and our talents into the assertion or the defense of individual rights whether they be property rights or human rights. Daily we go to court seeking a resolution or definition of these rights in courts of law. Because ours is a government of laws and rules and principles and not of men, therein, it seems to me, lies the basic difference between our system and the Soviet system.

In our system, those who are in authority are under the law. In their system, those who are in authority are the law. Our law is a rational restraint upon the unfettered use of power by our elected officials. Their law is rather the projection of the will of those who have taken power. I sometimes think that the difference between the two systems is dramatically symbolized in the fact that in Moscow they keep under glass on display for all to see the corpses of Lenin and Stalin, whereas we keep on display under glass for all to see the American Constitution with its Bill of Rights.

We are pouring most of our national energy and our national talent into the cold war to prevent the spread of global Communism. The concept of government by consent is locked in a deadly struggle with the concept of government by compulsion. But it isn't just the combat of ideas; it isn't just a war of ideologies because we are racing on at an ever accelerating pace in an arms race. You as teachers know better than any what history teaches us about the inevitable results of arm races. We are told today that one of our B-52 Intercontinental Bombers assures delivery of a load, an explosive load greater than all the guns and all the bombs that went off on every front on every day of every year of World War II. We are told that the warning time against an ICBM attack has been narrowed to fifteen minutes. We are told that we can no longer entrust the defense of our freedom to conventional earthbound creatures, but rather it must be entrusted to scores of bombers carrying our mightiest weapons in perpetual flight in the skies over nations and the fleets of nuclear submarines prowling under the seas. We are told that a hydrogen bomb exploded at a high altitude can strike our pilots blind from a distance of 1,000 miles as they deliver a retaliatory strike.

What's the costs of these weapons of destruction? The cost is paid in the wants, the hopes, and the needs of all mankind. One nuclear submarine costs schools for 150,000 children. One fighter plane costs a half-million bushels of wheat to feed those children. One B-52 Intercontinental Bomber costs one large, fully equipped modern hospital where those children could be cared for during illness. These equations are balanced in madness. Thirty years of religious wars, three centuries ago, wiped out a third of the European continent. Thirty hours of nuclear war would wipe out one third of this continent. But yet we are going on in an ever accelerating arms race to maintain a peace through mutual terror, a peace that is no peace at all.

You know that in the whole history of mankind only two ways have been devised by man's imagination as a means of settling disputes between individuals or between nations—violence or the submission of the dispute to a third party whose decision is binding. Violence in the new era is unthinkable. Before he died, Professor Einstein was asked by one of the students at the Princeton Institute how the Third World War would be fought. He answered that his mind could not race so fast as to keep up with the weapons of destruction that man was turning out; that he couldn't answer how the Third World War would be fought, but he could tell how the Fourth World War would be fought—with stones.

I believe that the time has come for mankind to make a bold and new try at man's ancient dream of world peace through law. You say its idealistic folly. I say, "What's the alternative?" A rocket to the moon was a metaphor for foolishness for a hundred years—now it's a reality. The time has come I believe for us to formulate a program as bold, as large, as resolute, as passionate as world Marxism; a program that gets its spiritual fuel from the beliefs that there are certain universal concepts of morality that can be woven into the fabric of law; a program that has as its essence the conviction that there are basic rules of reason and decency that can become the makers of an international system of justice administered by an international judiciary.

Mankind aches for a challenge to exhalt him. Who is more highly obligated to meet that challenge? The teachers, the lawyers of the world—the teachers to preach the gospel of world peace through the law, and the lawyers to implement the gospel with the tools. Sober and practical lawyers for the past three years have been marshaling their forces under the American Bar Association's Committee on World Peace Through Law toward this objective. Meetings have been held or are about to be held in Rio Janerio, in New Delhi in looking toward this goal. Now these lawyers are not dreamers, they don't believe in the abandonment of the conventional avenues in diplomacy or in world government. They are not world Federalists, but they believe in the strengthening of an international judiciary for which conflicts between nations can be resolved. In this belief they were supported by President Eisenhower and by President Kennedy.

Back in 1945 the International Court of Justice was created as part of the United Nations. It sits in a beautiful building amidst majestic splendor. Fifteen black-robed justices with lace-curtained throat pieces sit in a magnificent courtroom against a backdrop of oak paneling. Outside there is a great Gothic clock tower that points skyward, tapering into a cone as though time were going to soar into space, but the court has been a failure. In fifteen years it has decided twenty-five ministerial cases. We must take our full measure of responsibility for failure because we have refused—we, the leaders of the world, advocating government of the law have refused to submit unqualified to the court's jurisdiction. We have reserved to ourselves the right to decide what controversy falls in the

court's jurisdiction affecting us. We find ourselves in the company of Liberia, Mexico, Sudan, Union of South Africa, apart from the other 33 nations which have given consent to compulsory jurisdiction of the court.

As the world leader in the concept of government by consent and government by law, we find ourselves in the untenable position of breaking the elementary maxim of every system of justice devised since the beginning of time: that no man shall sit as a judge in his own case and, since we reserve unto ourselves the right to decide when we will submit to the jurisdiction of the court, reciprocally, any other nation against whom we may have a claim can refuse to submit to the jurisdiction of the court against us. What folly this is for us with \$28 billion private capital invested abroad, with 500 American citizens living abroad, with three quarters of a million American citizens traveling abroad every year! We have more need for utilization for this court than any other nation in the land. This is the court from which we might well have proclaimed that the U-2 incidence should have been litigated because it involved questions of dominion over space. I'm not naive; I don't think the Soviet Union would ever have consented to litigate the case in a neutral court of the world, but at least we would have had the offense in the court of world opinion. We would have asked for adjudication in an international court of justice under law and, when they refused, they would have been the outlaws. This is the court in which the question of access to the sectors of Berlin properly belong because the question turns upon the resolution of international treaty. This is the court where claims against confiscators belong.

I say the time has come for democracy to get bold and dramatic and to preach and practice the gospel of world peace through love to offer to the world a new hope, a fresh concept, an uncommon example. Mr. Khrushchev has had his hands on the thermostat of the world for the last decade. He set the dial. He has made it hot and he has made it cold. We have taken off our coats when he made it hot, and put them on when he made it cold because we have been on a holiday from history. It's time we went back to work refreshed and invigorated. Building the peace I believe is the greatest task that confronts us in the new era. It cannot be built by arms, it can only be built by law. It is the work for practical idealists who can translate the best of humanity's impulses into a working system of justice.

We celebrate Abraham Lincoln's birthday tomorrow. I think this is what he meant when he said, "It is as the peacemaker that the lawyer has the superior opportunity of being a great man" and when he says that the greatest advance in knowledge and wisdom that mankind can make is to learn to live in peace.

President Kennedy has alluded in some of his recent speeches to an episode that I first became familiar with as a school boy thirty years ago up in Hartford, Connecticut. Here is an account of this story. On

May 19, 1780, the skies over Hartford, Connecticut, grew dark at noon. By mid-afternoon they had blackened and in that religious age men fell on their knees and prayed for forgiveness because they believed the day of judgment was at hand. The Connecticut House of Representatives was in session. There was a clamor in the chambers for adjournment and the members fell on their knees feeling that perhaps the day of judgment had come. One Colonel Charles Davenport, the Speaker of the House at that time, arose and silenced the din with these words. "Gentlemen, either the day of judgment is at hand or it is not. If it is not, there is no cause for adjournment; if it is, I wish to be found doing my duty. I wish therefore that candles be brought."

Members of this convention, I believe that your country and mine needs, as it has never needed before, light and the illumination that you can bring to it with your candle. I urge you to go back to your cities and to your towns and to your students and excite their interest in the concept of world peace through law because it is in their minds that the seeds must be sown if the concept is to grow. I urge you to excite them and to channel this excitement so that in our lifetime we may see this cause advanced. I say this too in the spirit of a prayer made by a teacher and a lawyer. A great philosopher from India said that where the mind is without fear, where the head is held high, where knowledge is free, where the world is not divided into segments by the narrow domestic walls, where words come up from the depths of truth, where tireless striving stretches its arms toward perfection, where the clear stream of reason has not lost its way in the dreary desert sand of dead habit, where the mind is led forward in ever widening thought and action into that heaven of freedom, my country awaits.

RESPONSIBILITY AND FREEDOM

GEORGE ROMNEY

IN ONE of Henry Van Dyke's poems, there are these phrases: "The glory of the present is to make the future free, To love our land for what she is and what she is to be." It seemed to me that as educators, more than almost any group in the nation, you are in a position to help the youth of this country to find their glory in the present by making the future free, and loving America for what she is and what she is to be.

I think personally that our future freedom is in grave danger. We are engaged at this time in the greatest struggle for survival that the world has ever seen. Our chief adversary sometime ago declared that war and he declared it in these words. These are the words of Mr. Khrushchev:

George Romney is President of American Motors Corporation, Detroit, Michigan.

"We declare war. We will win over the United States. The threat to the United States is not the ICBM but in the field of peaceful production. We are relentless in this and we will prove the superiority of our system."

In recent weeks during the meeting of the communist nations, he stated that coexistence and other positions that have been taken, including the plea for peace, are all part of the relentless struggle on their part to prevail in this great war—which is active on every front except that of military combat.

One of the most disturbing aspects of this situation is the fact that, almost without exception, our own nationals who come back or people from other nations who have been to Russia tell us that the Russian youth are more dedicated, are more convinced of their ultimate victory than we are.

I think this condition exists because we have failed to meet the need as described in the Rockefeller report on the *Pursuit of Excellence*, where it says: "What most people, young or old, want is not merely security or luxury although they are glad enough to have these. They want meaning in their lives. If their era and their culture and their leaders do not or cannot offer them great meanings, great objectives, great convictions, then they will settle for shallow and trivial meanings."

Are we fully prepared to help our youth find great meanings and conviction through their love of America for what she is? What is America? It seems to me that one of the most profound facts about America is that she is the highest expression to date of the Judeo-Christian concepts—concepts that have worked gradually in nations to bring about government under law. This great principle first was expressed in the Magna Carta when the king himself had to accept the superiority of the law. And America is the product of a revolution that was premised on the idea that men had certain inalienable rights from their Creator, and that, because of these inalienable rights, government should be subordinate to the people and not the other way around. Our revolution was born out of the belief that a revolution that would permit the people to express these rights fully would enable the people gradually to achieve the aims that mankind has yearned for throughout history.

Almost simultaneously another revolution occurred in the Western Christian world based on the idea that, if you could just overthrow those in power and put another group in power, you would achieve Utopia. Out of that concept has come the communist revolution. Thus we have two opposing forces in the world—one with the state supreme, and the other with the people supreme as a result of the belief in a Creator and in man as a child of God with inalienable rights.

Under these concepts we have developed some very unique political principles. But I think one of the things we have forgotten about those political principles is that they were not meant just for us alone—that they have a universal meaning. A Frenchman, Father Bruckberger had this to say on the point in his book, *Image of America*:

"... The great revolution of modern times, the only one that has essentially changed the forms of society, was carried out not by Russia but by America, without fanfare, quietly, patiently, and laboriously, as a field is plowed furrow by furrow."

Then he went on:

"Americans, return to the first seed you sowed, to that glorious Declaration of Independence in which, for the first time, the rights of man . . . were explicitly defined and defended. . . . What ill luck, how great a misfortune it is for all, that it should be the ideology of the Communist Manifesto, and not that of your Declaration of Independence which is now conquering so large a part of the world. You Americans have been too ready to look upon the Declaration of Independence as a document designed for yourselves alone, and not for other nations. How fatal an error. . . ."

I think one of the things we need to recapture a conviction about and that we need to transmit to the youth of this country is that these great principles on which our nation was founded and on which the Declaration and the Constitution are based are universal in their character and that those principles can be taken by any peoples and shaped to their culture and their circumstances and their desires to achieve the same basic thing that has been accomplished here—a greater degree of individual freedom in all forms than has been possible any place else.

Under these political principles, America has developed a unique set of economic principles. We have an economy in this country that is only about 60 years old in its present form. It is based on four proven principles.

One is the principle of competition—that through competition you permit people to make a free choice as to their occupation, and the products they buy. Through the principle of competition, you thus put the people—not the government, not corporations, not capitalists, not unions—you put the people as consumers in control of the economy of this country.

The second proven principle is the principle of voluntary cooperation. In the automobile industry we are much better known for our competition, but the voluntary cooperative aspect has played an equally important part.

The third principle we established is that, in order to achieve maximum results, people should be rewarded as nearly as possible on the basis of contribution.

The fourth principle is that if you are going to have balanced economic growth, then all the people—consumers as well as owners and workers—must share in the fruits of progress.

Under these principles—which are relatively new—America has produced about half the world's wealth with about six per cent of the world's population. But unfortunately men in industry primarily have used this fact as a defense and explanation of our economic system. And it is no defense and explanation of our economic system because it does not spell

out the principles that have made it work. Furthermore, it does not make clear a fact that we ought to begin to recognize in our internal thinking and in our external discussion.

That is that the American economy is not an economy of capitalism. We started down the capitalistic road in the last century. But with the enactment of the antitrust laws and the adoption of the competitive principle, and subsequently these other principles, we took a different road. The economic policy of this country is based on essentially the same concepts as our political principles and they trace back to the idea that the individual should exercise the ultimate power because of his inalienable rights. Our national policy put ultimate economic power in the hands of the people as consumers just as clearly as we put ultimate political power in the hands of the people as citizens.

As a matter of fact, the people of this country have to vote every day as consumers. As consumers, they vote much more frequently and express their viewpoints much more sharply than they do as citizens. The American economy is an economy of the people, by the people, and for the people. I don't consider it capitalism, particularly when defined as the exploitation of the many by the few.

I have been through a struggle for survival economically, with my company. I had to find out who the real bosses of the American economy were. I found out it was not a question of doing what our stockholders wanted me to do. It wasn't a question of just doing what our workers wanted. It wasn't a question of doing what our dealers wanted. It was a question of producing the product that people wanted to buy. Our experience made clear the extent to which the people were the bosses of the American economy. And furthermore, they have been its chief beneficiaries.

Capitalists play a part, but private ownership is only one aspect of our economy. The ultimate control is in the hands of the people as consumers and therefore, as far as I am concerned, it is an economy of consumerism.

The concept of universal education that you represent, is also unique, and again it stems back to the basic principles on which our country was founded. Jefferson voiced it when he said: "I know of no safe depository of the ultimate powers of the society but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform their discretion." That is what you are engaged in doing.

I love America for these things. I know of no country on earth that has principles to equal these. Many have some, but not all. We have something to give to all the peoples of the earth. But if we are going to share what we have, I think we have to capture and help our children to capture a vision of what we have and what America can be. That is imperiled by these truths: *First*, "Every good and excellent thing stands moment by moment on the razor edge of danger and must be fought for."

Second, "Any nation that wants anything more than freedom will lose its freedom, and the irony of it is that, if it is comfort and security it wants, it will lose them, too."

In my book, if it is peace and prosperity we want, we will lose that, too. Third, "There is nothing more vulnerable than entrenched success." The fourth is the great principle voiced by Walt Whitman in these words: "It is provided in the essence of things that from any fruition of success, no matter what, shall come forth something to make a greater struggle necessary."

I think the very success we have had politically and economically, socially and internationally has created some new challenges that we must reckon with to enable America to be what she ought to be.

I keep going back in my thinking to this fundamental fact. Our country could not have been established without the principle of religious freedom having been established—without the separation of church and state. It took centuries of struggle and bloodshed to establish that great principle. Political freedom, as we know it in a republic, is a relatively new thing—only 175 years old. Yet we think of ourselves as relatively mature politically.

Most of us do not realize that a mass electorate is a new thing. When the Constitution was adopted, only five per cent of the people were entitled to vote. In the latter part of the last century, it was only 20 per cent; 30 per cent in the early '20's; and only about 40 per cent today.

But we have a mass electorate now, and it has come into being only in recent decades. Together with a mass electorate, we have seen extensive organization develop, and we have had power groups come into being. The two major political parties have found themselves in the position of having only 2,000,000 active members between them, while one power group alone has 15,000,000 members.

As a result of this development of a mass electorate, as a result of power groups, as a result of the fact that most citizens don't take an active part politically, we have reached the kind of situation Lippman identifies in his book, *A Public Philosophy*, when he says a political candidate or public official cannot afford to be right too soon. What he means by not being right too soon is that a political leader cannot afford to be right until the people understand the issue and are prepared to support a candidate who takes a particular side on an issue.

As a result of these conditions, political candidates and political parties have not been dealing with controversial issues in recent years. The result is that there has been no adequate discussion of the burning controversial public issues of our day, and there has not been in my adult lifetime in any presidential election that I have witnessed. The people cannot be informed except in two ways: by participation—and they are not participating—or by intelligent relevant discussion of the issues.

One of the things I hear all the time when I talk about current problems and what ought to be done about them is: "Oh, well, you can't do

anything about this until it gets bad enough." Someone has said: "It is no longer enough to say 'Oh, well, you can't do anything about this until it gets bad enough.'" Someone has said: "It is no longer enough to say, 'Oh, yes the democratic device is slow—it is inefficient, it is bungling, but we like it and we can muddle through.'" We are living in an age, in my judgment, where we cannot wait until things get bad enough to have our public officials and parties do the right thing.

We had a crisis here in the state of Michigan. We faced the crisis for the last two years. And recognizing the dangers of permitting things to deteriorate until they get bad enough, we have undertaken an experiment here that I think points the way to resolving this deficiency in our political structure.

We have organized a political instrument called "Citizens for Michigan," which citizens are invited to join in their citizenship capacity, without regard to their political or economic affiliations. They are asked to jointly identify the issues at a time when action should be taken, then to collect the facts, and then to undertake to arrive at solutions.

This process is working, and it is enabling citizens, and parties, and public candidates, to deal with the issues at the time that they should be dealt with. I believe that this and other approaches must be taken in the political area.

Our economy is still relatively new, as I have indicated. We face many problems in it we have not solved. We have the great asset of agricultural abundance. But we must find a way to use that great asset to assist the half of the world that is hungry. We have great industrial capacity. How do we use it in the new economic revolution to help the nations of Africa and Asia and others whose expectations are excessive?

In the economic field, we find that we have not even handled ourselves well enough to enjoy the unbroken friendship and support of our neighbor on the north, Canada. Canada is talking in terms of economic nationalism and indicating that our economic penetration there has not been on the basis they want it to be in the future.

The developing nations of the world, in my judgment, are absolutely determined that they will not come under the political or economic domination of the West or of any other outside influence.

We sit like residents in a village in which we are the wealthiest people. In the eyes of most of the people of the village, we sit with abundance and with land not in use and storehouses filled—and we face the difficult task of communicating with these people and making them realize that we genuinely want to help them.

I am convinced that in extending the type of economic assistance they want, we must do it in a new way and find new methods that will command their respect and their friendship.

In the field of education, I am sure you realize better than anyone else the many new things that have to be done. America is relatively new in these fields. We must go on and develop a clearer vision of what she can

be and we must convey this, as I see it, to our young people so that they can glory in the present, by making the future free, and have genuine meaning in their lives because of what America is and what she can be.

Someone has said that unless our knowledge is in order, the more knowledge we have, the greater will be our confusion.

About ten months ago, I had the privilege of hearing the international authority that I have been most impressed with in my reading make a talk here in Detroit. I refer to Dr. Charles A. Malik, who until about a year and a half ago was president of the United Nations General Assembly. I know of no man who has been trying to wake up America more than Dr. Malik. In this talk he discussed the problems of the world and he concluded his talk with these words: "Success does not come from wealth, fame or power. Success comes from seeking, knowing, loving, and obeying God. And if we will seek, we will know. And if we know, we will love. And if we love, we will obey."

I am convinced from my own experience that the young people with whom you work detect readily whether the adults with whom they are associating have a profound conviction and dedication to those things that are most fundamental to America.

I believe the most fundamental concept of all is the existence of our Creator and the basing of our rights and our concepts on that fact. Furthermore, I am convinced that this common conviction of a Creator is the bridge that we must use in reaching the peoples of the world and extending the help that they need on a basis on which they will accept it.

Reception

Sunday, February 12, 4:00 p.m.

GRAND BALLROOM, STATLER HILTON

Hosts:

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Michigan Association of Secondary-School Principals

Harold C. Rapson, Principal, Cantrick Junior High School, Monroe,

Michigan, Chairman of the Reception Committee

Music: String Ensemble, High School, Ferndale, Michigan; *Kenneth V.*

Sanford, Director, *John J. Houghton*, Principal

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the Michigan Association of Secondary-School Principals were host at a reception given to the more than 2,500 persons who were attending the convention. Refreshment consisted of coffee, tea, and cookies.

Vesper Service

Sunday, February 12, 8:00 p.m.

BALLROOM, COBO HALL

Presiding: Samuel M. Graves, Principal, Gamaliel Bradford High School, Wellesley, Massachusetts; Member of Executive Committee, NASSP

Invocation: Father Edward L. Schuerman, Assistant Principal, Cardinal Mooney Latin School, Detroit, Michigan

Music: Varsity Glee Club, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan; Harry M. Langsford, Director

Benediction: Father Edward L. Schuerman

Address:

YOU CAN CHANGE HUMAN NATURE

THE REVEREND ROBERT BRUCE PIERCE, D.D.

WHILE browsing recently through a "Your Choice for Ten Cents" counter of a second-hand book store I picked up a little book entitled *Some Wild Notions I Have Known*. Though published in the early twenties, the title intrigued me (and its author was a Methodist preacher and certainly deserved to be rescued from the indignity of a ten-cent counter) so I took the book home. It turned out to be a study of current proverbs; the concise little statements with which we all liberally sprinkle our speech, which are assumed by everyone to be true, and which therefore provide the clincher in most any discussion.

But it was with this off-hand acceptance of the general proverb with which the author of the book took issue. It was his contention that, rather than true, most proverbs are whole lies; and the best of them never more than half truths. For example, "Dead men tell no tales." This little book stated that, to the contrary, some men's voices are never heard until they are dead. I suppose that if the book had been written a little later Dr. Peter Marshall might have been an illustration. Chaplain of the United States Senate, a Presbyterian preacher in Washington, D. C., it was still not until after his death that his voice was heard across the land: first in the books *Mr. Jones*, *Meet the Master*, and *A Man Called Peter*, and later through the motion pictures. A second illustration from the book might be "Love is blind." To the contrary, says the author, love has the only eyes that truly see. It is only because the unloving eye fails

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to see beneath the surface that it assumes that what is clear to the eye of love is untrue.

I read the book through, then sat back to think over the whole idea. As far as the author had gone, I could not disagree. The only question might be, had he been selective in his proverbs, using only those that supported his thesis and discarding those that might question it? I decided to make an analysis of my own to see. The first common proverb that came to my mind that had not been analyzed in the book was "You can't change human nature." As an amateur student of the social and cultural history of America, I knew that this proverb was not new. It was firmly embedded in the convictions of our fathers even before the turn of the century, accepted without question just as it is now. However, there is no question but what there was a different attitude toward this proverbial statement of supposed truth a generation or two ago to what there is now. We "know" that human nature cannot be changed, and we are sorry that that is true, simply because we know how much it needs changing. But our ancestors seemingly rejoiced in the rigid character of our natures. They were glad that human nature couldn't be changed, the difference being that they were convinced that it needed no changing.

The source of this difference lay in our fathers' simple, and we know it to be naive, assumption that everyone is born good, that our civilization was on its way to establishing the Utopia that ancient philosophers had dreamed of, and that this would come to pass simply because it was in the nature of things: since man is born good—so they thought—all that is necessary is for the door to be opened and man will walk through it; give a man, any man, the truth and he will automatically follow it; the world, they believed, is on a kind of an escalator, always moving up and requiring nothing from any man or group of men to keep it on the move. All that anyone had to do to reach a better tomorrow was to get on and ride. As a large newspaper ad of the early days of the century put it, "Nothing can hold back the dawn."

This blind and easy optimism reflected itself in every aspect of our nation's culture. The prime slogan of the day was "Every day, in every way, the world's getting better and better." In literature, the character held most often before the youth as a heroine was Pollyanna, the happiness girl. Her philosophy was built around the assurance that every cloud has a silver lining. If anything seems to be wrong with life, it is just that, only seeming to be. Tomorrow will be better.

We built an educational system on this optimism. We were sure that the only things wrong with life were the result of lack of knowledge. The boy arrested as a thief had done wrong only because he only finished the third grade. Give him a high-school education and he would never be arrested again. Interestingly enough, when they gave him the high-school education, he did succeed in never being arrested again. But what they missed was that it was not because he stopped stealing, but only because they had made him too smart to catch. As a result, this

was the age when man became convinced that he would be saved by the genius of science, that every problem of mankind could and would be solved in a test tube. It was the era that spawned Freudian psychology, based upon the conception that, if man understood his problems, they were as good as solved.

Now lest someone might feel that I was pointing my finger at any specific section of our culture, let me add that it also—it being this superficial, naive optimism about man's innate goodness—controlled our churches. At the beginning of the second decade of this century my own church, the Methodist, entered into one of the greatest evangelistic programs of its history. The program was called the "Centenary Movement." Because I have a love of daring, of biting off more than I can chew and then chewing it, I have always thrilled to the slogan of that movement, "The World for Christ in One Generation."

The big problem with the slogan as we view it today is whatever could have led them to believe that such a thing was possible? The answer is just what we have been talking about. If man were fundamentally good, if, as one Methodist Bishop of the day put it, every one is "born a Christian," then again the problem of converting the world was simply answered in finding the means of getting the word to everyone. In the "Centenary Movement" they worked it out this way—they took the number of converts during the first ten years of the century and divided that figure into the amount of money spent by all the churches for missions and evangelism. The resulting figure was the cost per convert. Then they multiplied all the non-Christians in the world by that figure and said that, if they could raise that much money, they would have all the world for Christ in one generation. And the interesting part of this is that they almost raised the money—almost. And with the money, they did tremendous good. There are churches all over the world built with Methodist Centenary money. There are hospitals, orphanages, old people's homes, colleges and secondary schools—every conceivable kind of constructive institution in existence today that was started at that time and with those funds. Yet when it was all over, everyone was disappointed. The Movement left a sour taste in everyone's mouth, in spite of the good it did. Why? Why because it did not win the world for Christ in one generation. As a matter of fact, it did not even win one half, or one third, or even one tenth of the world for Christ.

The first rude awakening from the self-hypnosis of optimism came, I suppose, with our advent into the First World War. Personally I think that any history that does not point out the confusion and astonishment that was characteristic of our people before and during the First World War has missed completely the most significant psychological factor as far as our people were concerned. We read about what was happening in Europe and simply could not believe it was true. How could anyone do what the newspapers said the Germans were doing. Why I have a newspaper headline that was saved by a member of my family that tells

in three-inch type that the Germans were cutting off the ears of Belgium children. Now I don't know whether they did or not. While I am personally convinced that no German officer ever issued an order that Belgium children should have their ears cut off, I do know that war brings out the worse in everyone, including those who are on my side. But the point is, we believed it and could not understand how it could be true. How could men, born good, do such things?

Our confusion was multiplied over and over again when we finally became a participant in the war—when boys began to come home without arms, without legs, with their eyes blinded, suffering from what they then called "shell shock"; when some of the boys didn't come home at all. But that war only lasted one year for us. There came the day when the church bells rang out the armistice, the returning troops marched down wall street in the biggest ticker tape parade we had ever seen until then, and we settled down to enjoy the "roaring twenties."

It was not hard to convince us that the war had been all an illusion. It was not hard to recover all the optimism of a decade before. In fact, we became more optimistic than ever. We decided that Utopia was not around the corner, it was here. This was the age of the million-dollar prize fight, when Babe Ruth was paid \$100,000 for hitting sixty home runs in one baseball season; it was the era of the hip flask, the flapper, the Stutz Bearcat, and the racoon coat. Thoughtful historians tell me that almost one fourth of the people of the United States went to bed hungry most every night during the twenties; but the rest were having such a good time, and making so much noise about it, that they could not hear the cries of the hungry.

Then one day the roof fell in. The newspapers called it "Black Friday." It was a day in 1929 when multi-millionaires suddenly found themselves multi-paupers; when a three-story staircase in a building on Wall Street was nicknamed "suicide stair" because of the numbers that threw themselves down it to self-destruction; when our cities had to open soup kitchens; when desperate fathers broke bakery windows to get bread for their crying children and courts refused to prosecute; when the most popular song of the nation for almost two years was, "Buddy Can You Spare a Dime."

Now our confusion turned to desperation. Something had to be wrong. But just as we had refused to take any responsibility for progress, thinking it unnecessary, now we refused to take any responsibility for what had happened. Perhaps it was just that some men were born bad instead of good, and we looked for a scape-goat, someone to blame. We found him. He was the bourgeois, anyone who had anything more than I did.

Our politicians knew a good thing when they saw it. They proceeded to take the great cracks that then began to appear in our social structure and to dig them deep and wide. We built a huge funeral pyre, threw the bourgeois on top, and we the rabble ran around down below, led by our political leaders, applying the torch, and the great class antagon-

isms that have beset us ever since—and have been encouraged by politicians ever since.

The transition from the acceptance that some men might be born evil, to the knowledge that all men are born evil was not great. We hadn't anymore begun to work our way out of that great depression until we were in World War II. And this one lasted five years, not one. It touched every family in the nation. If it wasn't your husband, or father, or son, or brother, then it was the one who held that loved place in the family next door, or across the street. There was no butter, no sugar, no tires, no gasoline, and no cigarettes. And if the war itself didn't convince us, then there was the cold war that followed, warmed up by the hot sparks that flew during the Berlin airlift and the fighting in Korea and the chaos in the Congo and in Laos.

"At last," we say, "we have learned the truth. You can't change human nature, and isn't it horrible that you can't? For men are so evil—born that way. Civilization can never be more than a superficial thing, existing only when it is to the selfish benefit for men to support each other. Don't hope for our world, for there can be no hope, really. The Russians were created that way, delinquency is the natural pattern."

I suppose it was all summed up by what I heard several years ago when I attended a luncheon honoring Clarence Darrow on his seventy-second birthday. The toastmaster, when he turned to introduce the guest of honor, asked the great criminal lawyer if he could sum up his observations of life in a sentence or two. Mr. Darrow said he could. His words were, "How cruel men are." And at last we are developing a culture based upon this new wisdom, this new understanding of truth. You can't do anything about human nature. Since men are born fundamentally vile and devilish, the only thing to do is to make the most of what little we have.

Once again our attitudes are reflected in all that is a part of living—and in what contrast to the optimism of fifty years ago. For example, I recently scanned a new book written for junior high-school youth. The hero was a private in the Roman Army in the days before Vesuvius erupted and covered the city with lava. On the fateful morning the soldier was taken to a sentry post by his commanding officer and told to stand duty until he was relieved. When the eruption came, all who could, fled, including the commanding officer. There was no one with authority to relieve the private now. Should he disobey the command—his duty—and flee himself, thus saving his life? Or should he do what he had been commanded to do, and what he had been told all his life was the right thing to do, and stand his sentry post even though he knew that the only result could be his death? His choice became known when some fifty years ago they excavated the city and there were the bones of the sentry, still at his post. He had done what he should, even though nothing good could come from it. And the moral to our youth is clear: be honest, kind,

generous and just. Why? Because it will build a better world? No, of course not. Simply because you should, that's all.

And this same new understanding is seen in our panic over the fact that Russia is producing more atomic scientists, more mathematicians, and more engineers than we are. For a time it looked as though Congress itself was going to take action that would almost require any youth with brains to train to become one of the three—with no one asking any question about what kind of a world we would have, even if such tactics could save it.

Finally, we have again applied it to the church. We have a new theology in our schools and seminaries. It was born in Europe, a product of the hopelessness that swept that continent, devastated by so many wars. There it was called "continental theology." But now that it is here it is called "neo-orthodoxy." This title, unfortunately, is a little like "grape-nuts," which I presume you know is composed of neither grapes nor nuts. Well, "neo-orthodoxy" is neither new or is it orthodox. As one of its chief theologians said recently: "You can't appeal to man to be good. Man is incapable of good."

The first speaker at the meeting of the World Council of Churches held in Evanston, Illinois, in 1955, began by pointing to the sign over his head, "Christ, the Hope of the World," and said, "Yes, Christ is the hope of the world. But not this world, but of the world to come in eternity. There is no hope for this world."

The ultimate in this expression of complete hopelessness for man probably came in the insistence of one religious educator who said that "God created man to hate God." What this all means is, simply, that man has found himself out. We know how foolish and naive our forefathers were in their optimism. We know now that man's dream of a decent earth and a decent life for all who dwell upon it is impossible, because the material we have to work with, human nature, is cheap and mean and evil—by nature—and, after all, everyone knows that you can't change it.

So what do we do, give up? Decide that things that we have thought worth while because they evidenced the virtues of love and kindness and gentleness are useless and a waste of time? We can so decide. Or, thanks to the author of the little book which I mentioned at the beginning, we can question the basic assumption in all this. Obviously our fathers were wrong in their optimism, but might they also have been wrong in their assuming that human nature was fixed at birth and couldn't be changed? And if they were, would it not then be equally true that we are just as wrong in our modern pessimism?

I believe that we are wrong—that the author was right—that not being able to change human nature is also a "wild notion." Supposing I use religion itself as the example. The trouble with the new theology is that it requires that the New Testament be explained away. Every parable of Jesus, for example, is a parable of choice. True, it was by chance that a

Priest and a Levite and a Samaritan walked the road from Jerusalem to Jericho on the same day that thieves left a man beaten along that road to die. But it was by choice that the Priest and the Levite passed by on the other side, and by choice that the Samaritan stopped and gave aid. Equally, it was by choice that a certain son demanded his inheritance ahead of time, by choice that he went to a far country and spent his money in riotous living. It was also by choice that, when he was broke and hungry, he decided to go home and ask his father's forgiveness.

To give the lie to all our pessimism, all I would need to do would be to find one person, born under circumstances that sociologists and psychologists would say would most likely create a distorted personality, who, in spite of everything, by choice made something good and decent out of his or her life. If we might take the time, I could tell you of dozens that I have known myself, personally. And I imagine most of you could match me, story for story.

I do not question the importance of either heredity or environment in molding life. I simply say that when first created, any new life is but potential as far as this world is concerned. Potential for good—or evil. I insist that the greatest of sinners could have been the greatest of saints, if he or she had so chosen.

Recently a man sat in my study and said that he would give his left arm—he was right handed—if he could change five minutes in his life seven years ago. He simply meant that seven years before he had faced a decision—one of life's forks in the road. He had chosen to go right. He had been following the right-hand road ever since. Now he was a long way off center, as far as he could travel in seven years, and he at last had discovered that he should have turned left. Seven years ago he could have turned either way. Now he is miles from where he ought to be—all because of a choice.

But can we not see that in this lies the hope of the world—and the very reason and excuse for both your profession and mine? Choices may be influenced—and this is our job; not just to teach cold facts as a monkey might be trained; but to lead, and to interpret, and to influence. We can have a better world when we have better people, and our God given privilege is to mold human nature so that the members of the next generation will be better than those of the last.

May I close with three verses taken from the Scriptures. I pray that you may remember these if little else. The first two come from the Old Testament: "As a man thinketh in his heart, so he is." "From the heart flow the issues of life." And a verse from the new: Jesus said: "The Kingdom of God is within you." And within every child who shall come under your, or my, jurisdiction.

Fourth General Session

Monday, February 13, 9:30 a.m.

COBO HALL

Presiding: James D. Logsdon, Superintendent, Thornton Township High Schools and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois; First Vice President, NASSP

Invocation: Rabbi Harold D. Hahn, Temple Beth El, Detroit, Michigan

Music: Concert Choir, High School, Highland Park, Michigan; Keith Sturdevant, Director, Bryon F. Evans, Principal

General Topic:

COLLEGE ADMISSION IN THE SIXTIES

Addresses:

THE COLLEGE ADMISSIONS SQUEEZE

S. A. KENDRICK

I HAVE been asked to discuss the "College Admissions Squeeze," a subject much favored for attention by the press during the past several years. The consequence of so much public notice has been general alarm, considerable pressure upon schools to diverge from their usual practices, and innumerable meetings of school boards, college trustees, guidance counselors, administrators, and even occasionally of faculties in both schools and college. We are having a perfect rash of talent searches—most of which find talent that was never lost—and we have even had "guidance" prominently connected with national defense in Federal legislation.

Two assumptions are now fashionable: (1) that many students cannot get into college; and (2) either the secondary schools are not "preparing" students properly, or college admissions officers are venal. A corollary, which I will not discuss, states that (therefore) the Russians are about to get us.

The first assumption—that significant numbers of students are barred, or soon will be barred, from college—deserves comment only because it is so widely believed. I have a standard offer which I repeat here: If there are not financial problems, I will undertake to place in an accredited four-year college any student who holds a high-school diploma and

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who can travel to the college without assistance from an attendant. You will readily understand this offer. A survey made just two years ago¹ shows that more than one third of all American colleges accept all or almost all high-school graduates, without regard to grades or tests (if any), while more than half of all colleges accept all C-average high-school graduates. Only about one college in six can be regarded as highly competitive with respect to admissions policies.

I doubt, then, that we can discuss a "squeeze" for the mythical student who is simply looking for a college that will give him a chance to show that his high-school record is all a mistake—that he can do at a higher level what he has not done at a lower, or that he has qualities of spirit and character that over-ride a distressing tendency to read with his lips.

I hope I do not sound harsh. I am a compassionate man, and I am at least weekly witness to the distress of young people and their parents who are confronted with the bewildering problem of college choice and college acceptance. But I must say again that at the simplest level, this is real emotion over ultimately phony problems. The boy who does not get into the particular college that he and his father have dreamed of will have a slightly broken heart until he meets a new blonde, or spends a week on the campus of the college that did accept him. The father, with blondes forbidden, will suffer longer.

So now we come to the question of whether or not it is sensible for me and my colleagues on the platform to remain here any longer. Is there, in fact, a squeeze that is real, that affects schools except in the public relations sense; and that is worthy of the attention of this audience. I think there is.

We are confronted at this moment with the extension of the common school of this country into the collegiate years, and with the re-creation of an adequate method of articulating, under greatly altered circumstances, the upper parts of what we hope will be a continuous school system.

I have mentioned altered circumstances. One of these is that beginning now—or perhaps sometime ago—the really significant point in a young American's school career is school-leaving age. If he perseveres in school beyond the age at which he is legally permitted to escape into disaster, he has entered into a contract with himself to become needed in a society which will increasingly find room but not use for the partly educated. A recent report to the President alleges that a full one fourth of all the nation's clerical jobs have been taken over by machinery in the past five years. There is now a machine which will make change from currency of any denomination. I conclude from these and other things that a student who looks to the school for something more than custodial care will fulfill himself only by continuing beyond the twelfth grade—whether in college or not, but usually in college.

¹ Hawes, Gene R., (editor). *The New American College Guide*. New York: The New American Library. 1959.

A second altered circumstance in the conditions surrounding the articulation of school and college is the fact that American youth *are* going on to college, for good reason or ill. I could read you figures, but I am sure that each of you has seen in his own school the way in which the war babies are planning for grades thirteen to sixteen as a right or even a duty, instead of as an exciting decision to be made gravely and perhaps not made at all. Part of this, of course, is because it was national policy to send the veterans of World War II to college. These veterans set a new record not only for education, but also for paternity. Their children are now in our high schools, and the rule is absolute: the children of college graduates go to college—they are expected to go, they expect to go, and they go. There are other reasons for the rush to college, but we need not be concerned with reasons so much as with the fact—the college is becoming a part of the common school.

The question, then, is not that old one, beloved of women's clubs, "Who Should Go to College?" but, rather, how can we arrange the relationships between schools and colleges so that the educational line remains sweet and straight and the student finds his way between two worlds that have traditionally been so clumsy in managing their mutual affairs?

Let me remind you of how we have managed before. I do not call this history for both my time and scholarship are too short for that, and I am too young for reminiscence. Let us say rather that we can find in the records a certain number of indisputable facts concerning the transfer from school to college during this century.

The first fact to remember is that there are two great traditions of college admissions in the United States and that they came into existence at the insistence of the *secondary* schools. During the latter years of the nineteenth century, the high schools found college entrance requirements so conflicting and un-coordinated that they began to insist, through the National Education Association and other agencies, that some rational basis for agreement be found. Out of this clamor developed two devices for having individual colleges give up some measure of sovereignty with respect to admissions requirements in order that schools might proceed with a coherent program. One of these devices was the accreditation of high schools such that colleges could accept with confidence school work done in secondary schools which were, through accreditation, known to be of satisfactory quality. This procedure was especially associated with the mid-western states and the North Central Association.

The other device, especially associated with the East, was the College Entrance Examination Board, founded in 1900 as an association of colleges that agreed to accept competence as demonstrated upon examinations, supplementary always to the school record and recommendation, as an admissions credential.

The important thing to notice is that each of these two devices required a measure of self-denial by the individual college. No more might a par-

ticular department of Latin specify the particular lines which must be read as preparation for the college. No more might departments of mathematics designate the particular theorems that must be memorized. All this seems sensible and even primitive to us now. In 1900 it was radical enough to provoke temper tantrums from some very illustrious educators.

During the years of this century, the schools have changed with American society and these two mechanisms, linked, it happened, to two rather different philosophies, were sufficiently responsive to change to remain useful. High schools increased, and discovered, as enrollments grew, that they had a dynamic of their own, that they had students who were not going to college, and indeed that there is more dignity and more sense in teaching the student where he is than in "preparing" him for some later institution where, presumably, education will take place. Unhappily, school and college teachers grew more and more apart, philosophically and organizationally.

In testing, the development of intelligence tests and scholastic aptitude tests took place just in time to be ready for the Great Depression when schools were desperately attending the need of students to go quickly and adequately into the world of work, and when colleges were discovering that a bright boy (bright as established by aptitude tests) could probably be taught in college no matter what his teaching in school—if he had tuition money in his pocket.

I think it is fair to say that we can understand many of the reasons why it happened, but we cannot deny or fail to deplore the fact that communication came to be almost totally cut off between school and college during the 1920's and 1930's and that it has never been restored. There was no college admissions squeeze then. The Eight-Year Study and other studies were believed to say that it does not matter what a student studies or in what sequence before he reaches college. There was indeed no good reason to do the painful work of adjusting ideological differences and of creating close articulation of two parts of the school system which seemed, at the time, irrelevant to one another.

But now there is a "squeeze." At the beginning of this paper, I made a near-facetious dismissal of the simple view that this is a matter of sheer space. But if I am right in insisting that the college has now joined the common school system for many and perhaps for most American youth, we can no longer afford to assume that the high school leads nowhere except to its own end, or that the college begins only at its own beginning. The real task will be to mesh curricula in appropriate ways, to find ways of allowing students to proceed each at his own best pace, and finally to guide students into the particular college which will provide the best continuing education for the individual student involved.

I am not, mind you, simply urging that colleges and schools must come to understand one another. Understanding helps, but it probably arrives surprisingly at the end rather than at the beginning of problem solving.

There are, though, three rather definite goals toward which we must work if the educational system is to deliver good results in the years ahead.

In the first place, there needs to be created a unified, professional body of specialists in the articulation of school and college. At present, we have a sparse growth of guidance officers in schools, many of whom are very slightly trained and most of whom received their formal guidance training at a time when the special problems of guidance toward college were scarcely considered. Even today, it is more common to find formal programs for the education of guidance officers including detailed study of occupational information rather than of the techniques of college description and the advisement of college-bound youth.

On the other hand, there is scarcely an identifiable body of professional admissions officers at all, although one is coming into being. There have been, and are, able and wise men aplenty in college admissions offices, but mainly they have been excessively parochial, either guarding their own narrow bridge, alone and unloved both before and behind, or leading the spring round-up before riding off to give assurances of rising enrollments to the legislature.

But these good men and women, guidance officers and admissions officers, are twin ends of the same thought. They are all engaged in the placement—not the acceptance or rejection, but the placement—of youth. They need a common base of training, and a common point of view. They also need, and often do not get, an adequate place in the budget of their institutions. If they can be seen as educators administering a delicate educational job, not a gross mechanical job, we shall have made progress.

Secondly, there is a plain need for more information about things as they are. I put the chief burden upon the colleges here. When colleges have come universally to describe themselves in terms of the things that matter most in guidance—for example, the exact characteristics of the last admitted class—much of the doubt and anxiety in college admissions will have been removed.

For the school's part, I can only ask, without knowing how it is to be done, that we find some way of conserving the knowledge of the child that accumulates, or should accumulate, over years of teaching and testing. At present we slave over, and sometimes pray over, children for twelve years and then, when it comes to saying what has happened, we wind up in vacuous quarrels about forms, check lists, duplicating processes, and the crushing clerical load.

Finally, we are about to find out whether the ancient quarrel about the secondary-school curriculum (for students going on to college) is to see just one more swing in the balance of power, or is to come finally to a happier consensus. It is not possible to leave the job of specifying entrance requirements to college faculties, for they cannot agree among themselves and in the end will necessarily give over the definition of requirements to a testing agency or an accrediting agency, or both. It

is useless to ask the schools to exercise that complete freedom which is so often asked for and so seldom wanted.

When the time comes for a student's application to a given college to be considered, judgments must be made. Those judgments will always necessarily lean upon some testing agency, accrediting body, or upon some treaty or convention between particular schools and particular colleges. I, for obvious reasons, think that tests are one of the useful ways in which judgments can be formed and the proper placement of students beyond the high school be effected.

However, whether tests are used or some other method is thought best, the system will be both just and humane only if the substance behind the judgments has been agreed upon in some broadly representative forum. Until some rather specific compromises are made concerning the heart (to avoid "core") of the curriculum, we shall continue to have a "squeeze" at the admissions level. We shall also continue to have college professors teaching freshman classes as though the student had never been to school before, and high-school teachers, glorying in the freedom of local autonomy, teaching their classes as though their students will never study the subject again.

I hope I have not disappointed too many of you who might have expected me to talk on "How To Get Into the College of Your Choice," or something equally useful. I know that I have left out much. I have scarcely talked of testing at all, or of the emotions of children and parents, or of the wonderful individual miracles that occur in schoolrooms outside all systems and theories. What I have tried to do is to introduce my two colleagues, working schoolmen both, who have their own perspectives on our subject.

I have tried to say that we have come to one of those times when the old skin is being shed and when the new one has still not hardened into something that honest men can shape. I have every confidence that the inclusion of grades thirteen to sixteen in the common school system will be a good thing for all of us.

A HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL LOOKS AT COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

LLOYD S. MICHAEL

ONE educator, alert to the growing college-admissions problem, characterized the high-school senior with hopes for college as "a bundle of nerves in a rat race." This is the season when colleges and universities can make the future look bright or dismal to many young people and

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cause anxiety to those in schools who bear the responsibility for their preparation. It is important that this Association concern itself with the problem of college admissions.

There is general consensus that the high school and the college have common problems in curriculum, guidance, and admissions. There is less agreement about the urgency and complexity of the task and the benefits to be derived from schools and colleges joining together in discussion of and action on these educational problems.

There are many difficult tasks to be accomplished in improved school-college relations. This discussion will be concerned with four of these tasks. These are: first, the education of college-bound youth is a primary function of secondary education and efforts must be directed to the increasing quality of college preparation; second, improvements must be made in the guidance and counseling programs in our schools; third, the aims, policies and procedures of admissions in colleges must reflect accurately the aims and programs of the colleges; and fourth, admission to a college should insure greater responsibility by the college for the success of its students.

EDUCATION OF THE COLLEGE-BOUND STUDENT

Preparation for college is again, and will become increasingly so, a major function of secondary education. There is a pressing need for a new emphasis in both the purpose and program in most of our high schools. The decline in the percentage going to college during the first half of our century (in 1930 the percentage going to college was about 20) was generally accepted as the high school moved ahead in the realization of its goal of universal youth education. It lessened its former emphasis upon college preparation and assumed a different task of preparation of work-bound youth.

Today fifty per cent of high-school graduates go to college with a predicted figure considerably higher in the near future. Preparation for college is a gain a primary function of secondary education. The first requisite of this change is a clear recognition that preparation for higher education must receive new emphasis in the aims and program of most of our secondary schools and that standards of scholastic achievement for many pupils must be raised.

The improvement of the curriculum is a major task of the secondary school. There is a need for an increase in both the quantity and quality of college-preparatory courses, but care must also be taken to retain and improve other subjects in the curriculum. The various curriculum projects of NASSP's committee on Curriculum Planning and Development are outstanding efforts to improve instruction in important subject fields.

Our educational system is becoming more nearly an articulated system of education with the average level of education soon to reach a point beyond high-school graduation. Improved programs of curriculum con-

tinuity are essential if the transition from the school to the college classroom is to be a satisfying experience for an increasing percentage of students.

There should be a cooperative, planned exchange between schools and colleges on what should be taught in schools. There should be a constant flow of ideas about curriculum from college to school and from school to college; this is our best guarantee of reducing the gaps between what is known and what is taught. It is significant that most of the current curriculum projects to change and revitalize the subject matter taught in the schools have been largely initiated and developed by persons and organizations in higher education. This has been the case in the fields of mathematics and physics. More recently, new programs in English, foreign language, and the humanities are in progress which reveal the clear imprint of college and university. These cooperative efforts should be accelerated.

Perhaps the best plan for cooperative action in the curriculum between school and college is the Advanced Placement Program of the College Entrance Examination Board. This program, emphasizing cooperation rather than dictation, has resulted in fundamental revision of curricula in eleven school subjects for able students. Committees of school and college teachers have not only improved the curricula at both levels of education, but schools also have a better understanding of what colleges want, and colleges have greater respect for what can be accomplished in the secondary school. This Association might well consider ways of promoting a more rapid diffusion of this program in the schools, and of utilizing many of its successful features in cooperative efforts aimed at other curriculum problems.

Colleges are exercising a steady, increasing pressure on the secondary-school curriculum. It is important that high schools understand the extent and direction of these pressures and the degree of their control. These influences should be directed toward creating the kind of changes that will not undermine the philosophy and purposes of the comprehensive high school, but rather will serve better the school's great diversity of functions and program. Influences should be encouraged that help schools provide more appropriate and higher quality instruction for college-bound students; pressures should be resisted that impair the school's obligation to develop programs suitable for non-college-bound youth.

Schools should withstand efforts of colleges to introduce more specific course requirements as an easy means to facilitate the administration of a difficult admissions program. They should oppose any trends on the part of colleges to restrict, by means of arbitrary discrimination, hidden entrance requirements, and more prescribed courses by faculty action which are unrelated to preparation for and probable success in the college curriculum. They should deny to any college or group of colleges the right to act as sole arbiter of the adequacy of school programs.

COUNSELING PROGRAM NEEDS IMPROVEMENT

There are many changes and improvements needed in the typical program of school advisement for college. We are concerned with a single process, but it is frequently made otherwise by our complicated methods and procedures. Bowles points out that the admissions process has become an obstacle race rather than a doorway of opportunity. This Association has a responsibility to assist in the elimination of some of the hurdles.

There is a serious shortage of able school counselors interested in and assigned to college counseling. Too few high schools have added personnel and services as the percentage of college-bound students has increased. Pre-service and in-service training of counselors should be greatly expanded. More higher institutions should offer effective programs for school counselors. The opportunity for internships in the admissions offices and summer employment or workshops on the campus should be included in the training. Adequate testing programs, wise selection of courses and activities, effective guidance about educational and vocational plans, accurate information about college entrance requirements and scholarships are among the requisites of a satisfactory program of school advisement.

Colleges vary widely in the kinds and amount of information they want schools to supply. Some institutions are easily satisfied with a transcript which may lack the final semester of school; others request and use a voluminous packet of objective and subjective data about each candidate. The important thing is that the college should request and use data essential to arrive at wise decisions in the admissions process. There is the obligation on the part of the school to evaluate and report the student's aptitudes, achievements, interests, drives, and maturity. The schools should also give an objective analysis of the student's desire to do college work and his potential for success in college.

There must also be greater consultation among schools and colleges to identify students who should be encouraged to continue their education and to reduce the number who lack the necessary qualifications to seek college entrance.

Among many young people aiming for college, there is considerable orientation and direction of their entire lives toward this goal. They plan their school course wisely; they begin an early study of colleges and vocations; they discuss college plans with their families, teachers, and counselors on their own initiative; they seek out college students when they are home to inquire about their experiences and to seek their advice; they confer with college counselors and visit a few colleges; where there is need they seek information about financial assistance; they regard college as the next phase of a developing life plan; and they usually succeed in college. Unfortunately, these are not typical young people. Many more youth are less concerned about their future plans. For these, the

school and college must play a more active and supportive role. The extent to which counseling services of the school and admission procedures of the college are related and adapted to the individual student and his needs will determine, in large measure, his pursuit of more education and his success and satisfaction in that quest.

These are some of the tasks that must be accomplished by our high schools if they are to assume an effective role in the admissions process and in improved school-college relations and accomplish adequately their services to college-bound youth.

AIMS, POLICIES, AND PROCEDURES

There is the challenge to the college to see that the aims, policies and procedures of admissions reflect the wise thinking and careful planning of the college and not the mere pressures and exigencies of increased numbers of applicants. There is need for a careful reappraisal of current admissions policies and procedures in many colleges and universities. In too many colleges there is no understanding, and certainly no commitment to the purpose, functions, and authority of the admissions office. The admissions director frequently functions merely in a service relationship to his own institution and to schools, and has little if any responsibility for policy- and decision-making. It is the obligation of every college to see that the aims, policies, and procedures of admissions reflect the best thinking and wise decisions about its objectives, the kind of students it wants, and what it hopes to do for them. The admissions director must then be given the status, authority, budget, and personnel to seek, counsel, and admit students who can profit most in that particular program and environment.

The operations of the admissions office should function with efficiency and fairness in its relations with schools. This is not always the case. Schools are able to sense that decisions are too frequently a matter of the moment and not the result of policies and procedures consistently applied. Admission choices may result more from guesses and intuition and less from the use of sound, reliable criteria of selection. Mistakes are too costly for the failure in one college can mean the end of a youth's education.

The admissions process needs better measures of selection, better timing, better communication, and surely more thinking. Visits to the campus by students and to the admission office by students and counselors are frequently reported on unfavorably either because of lack of staff or because the visit has been viewed as an unnecessary interruption in the more important activities of the office. There is also the danger as candidate volume increases that the applicant may be regarded as a statistic rather than an individual who has unique talents and aspirations that need the right college to challenge.

Colleges as well as schools have a greater responsibility than they are now assuming to see that the right student gets to the right college. The

college should identify and define the various characteristics they desire in students and give students a detailed description of its environment and program. An increasing number of colleges are preparing freshmen class profiles which report on each class admitted. Schools should be supplied with information about test data used in admissions, class rank, geographical distribution, scholarship information, academic records of recent freshmen classes, and other data that will help the school to act intelligently in its relations with a particular college. Colleges should send at once information to schools about any changes in policies and practices in admissions. The colleges should also supply the school with a semester report of the scholastic record, honors, activities, and failure of its graduates and other pertinent information for all the time the student is enrolled in college. More visitations to schools and more planned conferences for school counselors on campus will further improve advisement and admissions.

COLLEGES MUST ASSUME RESPONSIBILITY FOR THEIR STUDENTS

The real test of a good admissions program, however, is what happens after selection. It is the degree of satisfaction and success achieved by students admitted to college. Many students have such experiences, but too many do not have. Colleges and universities must assume more responsibility for the success of young people on their campuses. About one out of four of the students who enter college drop out by the end of the freshman year, according to a recent study by the U.S. Office of Education. The numbers are about equal to the combined total of those who drop out during the following three years. The report states that more than one fifth of those who dropped out of college permanently were in the top twenty per cent of their high-school graduating classes.

Only two out of five entering college freshmen stay to graduate from the same institutions four years later. Another student graduates eventually from the same or a different institution. This attrition is greatest in state and municipal institutions were thirty-three per cent of the freshmen class graduate in four years, compared with forty-eight per cent in private institutions.

The study expresses concern at "an alarming waste of our most competent manpower." It states that the colleges have failed to give students competent guidance on educational plans and have failed to help freshmen in their necessary adjustments to college life, or to provide the kinds of advice often needed by students.

College counseling staffs are generally much undermanned. What personnel does function is usually concerned with maladjusted and serious problem cases and has little time for preventive work and the counseling of freshmen students. Guidance information from school is usually not routed to college counselors, but is sent to academic advisers whose most effective use of the materials may be frequently questioned. Student

personnel services will be greatly extended in scope and degree when there is greater realization of the need for these services.

Each college should conduct periodic studies of the causes of student failure. One study of 10,000 college drop-outs during the freshman and sophomore years reported that the important reasons for leaving college were the absence of a sense of belonging and that school work was not interesting or challenging. In too many high schools, youth are typically treated as immature, irresponsible persons requiring a maximum amount of supervision and control. It is folly to assume that these same youth after a senior prom and a magical summer are ready to shoulder all the responsibilities of adults in a new environment where they are essentially without restriction and supervision. For most of them this is also a break from parental control. Studies indicate that a sizeable majority of college freshmen reveal many anxieties that center around concern about their social adjustment on campus and fear of scholastic difficulty or failure. They greatly need a sense of security and confidence that the college should provide in part through effective counseling and advisory services.

There are many problems that grow out of the conflicts "between the strictly chaperoned intellectual forces of the classroom and the undisciplined, disorganized so-called community life of the campus." In social and non-academic areas, students operate by a different set of rules because of the gulf between the classroom and the campus, a student culture, which Jacobs reminds us, is too often in open conflict with the pattern of faculty culture. Schools have few counselors who know college curricula, college values, college customs, and college campuses. Advisement on these matters is a college responsibility as is the obligation to increase the student's chances for success and satisfaction in his college years.

This high-school principal looks at the problem of college admissions with optimism if we in the schools perform more effectively our function of adequate preparation for higher education in all of its important aspects, including sound counseling services, and if those in the colleges see that the aims, policies, and procedures of admissions are consistent with the purposes of the respective institutions and the needs of the student body are effectively served. Schools and colleges have critical problems. They must work cooperatively in the solution of their common problems of guidance, admissions, curriculum, and education itself. The extent to which they are willing to work together now and in the years immediately ahead will determine, to a large degree, the achievements and services of each, and the success and satisfaction of many thousands of college students.

A COLLEGE DEAN LOOKS AT THE ADMISSIONS PROBLEM

STEPHEN ROMINE

TWO very able men have preceded me in this discussion of the college admissions problem, each speaking from a somewhat different point of view. My assignment, made increasingly challenging by their thought provoking presentations, is to look with you at this problem through the eyes of a college dean. I am pleased to do this, but ask that you permit me, now and then, to change my role to that of a high-school principal which I once was. Occasionally I may also want to be a devil's advocate.

My sole purpose, and that of my colleagues, is to help you to face the college admissions problem realistically. This is a first and essential step in its eventual and proper solution. If I am critical of either colleges or secondary schools, it is only because this is unavoidable in the honest pursuit of our topic and our purpose.

Articulation is a major focus of failure in American education, of which the college admissions problem is the most obvious but not the only example. A few suggestions about solving the problem may be in order.

To see it clearly we must all look at the college admissions problem in its larger educational and social context. Only in this complete and complicated context can it ever be understood and solved. Attempts to isolate it, even for purposes of discussion, are doomed to failure. Such efforts postpone favorable action and are frustrating. Over-simplification does not clarify; instead it confuses and leads us astray. The magnitude of the college admissions problem and the complexity of forces and counter forces creating it should not be under-estimated, nor should we quake at their proportions.

THE OVER-ALL SETTING OF THE PROBLEM

Certain features of the larger educational and social setting of the college admissions problem merit mention. The burgeoning college-age population and the growing popularity of a college combine to create a crucial challenge to higher education under any circumstances. The manpower shortage and the progressively greater demand for highly educated talent increase this challenge. Add to these conditions the mounting shortage of facilities and the tremendous staffing needs to be met. In so doing, you see shaping up a critical situation not unfamiliar to you as secondary-school principals. Colleges generally are also having no greater, and often less, success than secondary schools in securing the financial support fundamental in attacking their problems.

This set of conditions is further complicated by the fact that the quality of an institution as commonly defined is greatly influenced by the caliber

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of its students. Harvard, as only one example, owes its prestige not alone to an illustrious faculty, but also to a potentially great student body. Higher education has always served a selective function. In an era when so much is said of quality and when collegiate attrition rates are so high, it is inevitable that colleges become increasingly mindful of the "staying power" of those students who are admitted.

On this point let me make several observations. Admissions requirements vary greatly, as you are aware. There are higher institutions that admit only a small fraction of those that apply. This practice has become a sort of hallmark of prestige in many quarters. Some colleges are required by law to accept high-school graduates; others admit many students that would be poor risks in a really challenging college institution. There is grave danger now that we may act precipitously and foolishly by going too far and too fast in a restrictive direction.

The struggle for the tax dollar results in pressures and counter pressures that may possibly be resisted but cannot be escaped. Legislative investigation and intervention, sometimes bordering on malicious meddling, harasses many college administrators and professors. The power struggle in education has reached new heights as many and variously motivated groups within and without the profession compete for the control of educational standards.

What is the result of all these circumstances on college admissions? Obviously many colleges are having to become more interested in highly selective admissions policies and practices than they have needed or wanted in the past. Such policies and practices are encouraged by a few vocal professors who have long been more interested in criticizing the secondary schools than in working with them in solving mutual problems. Rightly or wrongly, this is the situation in higher education today, and it may get worse before it begins to get better.

Many knowledgeable and sincere college administrators and professors are deeply concerned about these matters. Under pressure they may err, it is true, but to under-rate their willingness to listen and their desire to do the right thing is a serious mistake. Often they are too near to the woods to see the trees, and they listen too much and too exclusively to each other. In short, they need your help but seldom will they ask for it. Consequently, secondary-school principals must probably go more than halfway in establishing contact and rapport. Lest you feel that this is asking too much of you, be assured that I advise college personnel that they, too, must go more than halfway.

SOME ADDITIONAL AGGRAVATIONS

Let us now look frankly at some of the more specific and aggravating causes of the college admission problem that operate within the general setting previously described. First, it is my opinion, and I mean to say this kindly, that neither regional nor state accreditation has served secondary or higher education well enough in matters of articulation.

If accreditation had served us better, I doubt that external admissions testing and certain other admissions practices would have developed as they have today. We seem not to have learned what should be an obvious lesson from history; namely, that, whenever existing agencies cease to serve an important and continuing initial purpose and fail to meet needs as the latter arise, these agencies begin to die and are in time replaced.

Standards of performance vary greatly among high schools, even among teachers in a single school. The admission to college of students who subsequently need remedial instruction constitutes a second aggravation. The loss of time, the waste of teaching personnel, and the costs of this sub-freshmen endeavor cannot wisely be disregarded. I am not blaming anyone at this point, but we must not neglect this critical situation and we must determine where the fault lies and endeavor to correct it.

There is another less recognized but highly important side of this coin that I want to mention. Many high schools today are sending increasing numbers of exceptionally well prepared and highly motivated graduates to college. The common failure of colleges not to challenge adequately these students in the freshman year is tragic. This results in an inexcusable intellectual let down that frequently has a lasting, deadening effect on students. What to do with these able and ambitious students is a third concern that demands a better answer than many colleges have yet given.

A fourth factor is the partial or complete failure of communications. Colleges currently draw students from many secondary schools within and beyond state boundaries. It is difficult, indeed impossible, to know all of these schools well. Population migration is great, with the result that many students attend several high schools, often in different states. The confidence that can reasonably be placed in student credentials thus sometimes leaves much to be desired. On the other hand, higher institutions do not always present to secondary schools a clear image of what their college programs are like and what they expect of students. Misunderstanding, fear, and suspicion frequently characterize the casual and infrequent relationships between secondary and higher education, partially because these relationships often come about only when there are embarrassing problems to be solved.

The relative ease with which colleges can increase requirements and impose external testing upon applicants, whether the results are used or not, hardly encourages efforts to maintain two-way lines of communication. Too many secondary-school principals accept this treatment without the legitimate protest which can and should be made. For these, and other reasons too little is done about securing a larger and more accurate picture of aptitude, preparation, motivation, and subsequent performance and relating these to curriculum and instruction at both college and secondary-school levels.

SOME APPROACHES TO SOLVING THE PROBLEM

With more time than is now at our disposal, we might profitably continue this analysis of the college admissions problem. I believe, however, that our several presentations provide an adequate basis from which to seek some solutions.

The college admissions problem can be and will be solved only as secondary schools and higher institutions work together far more closely and cooperatively than they ever have. This is fundamental, for, as long as these levels of education operate alone, or only in partial consonance, neither can realize its full potential. Under such a circumstance there will continue to emerge from our higher institutions something less than a first-rate educational product; namely, the typical college graduate. For this result, both the colleges and the high schools are to be blamed, indeed no level of our educational system is completely innocent. Nor can society evade its responsibility for this condition.

These are harsh words, I admit, but their sole purpose is to underline the absolute necessity of much greater voluntary coordination and far more effective articulation in education from the kindergarten through the graduate school than we have today. This will require higher levels of financial support than society has often been willing to provide. Specific problems mentioned earlier indicate focal points around which cooperative endeavor is needed, and can be initiated. Let me mention briefly a few steps that would move us nearer to a solution to some of our common problems.

Colleges and secondary schools should cooperate in the determination of college admissions requirements. Such action would bring into better perspective many of the neglected facets of the admissions problem and would make for policies and practices far more effective and satisfying than what we have today. This would help to insure the proper use of any and all examinations and result in a comprehensive look at our students and the educational programs we provide for them. And it would promote effective communications.

Higher institutions and secondary schools need to consider together their respective roles as educational institutions. Much mutual misunderstanding exists on this point, more from lack of knowledge than from any other factor. Both levels need to reconsider concepts of quality and quantity in educational endeavor as both restriction and diffusion of educational opportunity bear upon such endeavor. Colleges, in my judgment, too often assume that restriction alone elevates quality when this may be entirely false. Unfortunately such restriction is often unduly acclaimed by an unknowing public.

Colleges and secondary schools should utilize accreditation, especially regional accreditation, to assist with articulation problems. Today these problems transcend state boundaries and are even of national scope. The regional accrediting agencies are uniquely organized to promote

voluntary cooperation. Unless we can effectively accomplish our objectives voluntarily through extra-legal agencies, we can expect unwanted legal controls as surely as we are sitting here today.

Colleges and secondary schools should join hands in developing a program of public information that would present a clearer and more complete picture of the admissions problem than the public generally gets. Independently, and without malice generally, we have deceived ourselves and others, frequently because we become defensive out of necessity. Our critics have aligned us one against the other when it suited their purpose. Our silence and our ineptness have added credence to their condemnation, whether deserved or not.

A CONCLUDING CHALLENGE

Educated talent is always at a premium in a democracy. In a world of rapid change and ideological warfare, the full use of our manpower is imperative to our well-being and our survival. As a deterrent to this objective, the college admissions problem is intolerable. It must be solved in a manner that does not restrict, but rather enlarges upon the number of students who graduate from high school well prepared and eager to continue to perform at high scholastic levels commensurate with individual potentiality and adequate to keep democracy alive. We dare not fail to meet this challenge together.

Fifth General Session

Monday, February 13, 1961, 8:00 p.m.

COBO HALL

Presiding: Calloway Taulbee, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Santa Fe, New Mexico; Member of Executive Committee, NASSP

Invocation: The Very Rev. Monsignor Vincent J. Horkan, Superintendent of Schools, Archdiocese of Detroit

Music: Symphony Orchestra, Grosse Pointe High School, Grosse Pointe, Michigan; Richard H. Snook, Conductor; Jerry J. Gerich, Principal

General Topic: EXTERNAL TESTING PROGRAMS—WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE? (Program arranged by the Joint Committee on Testing of the American Association of School Administrators, Council of Chief State School Officers, and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals)

Chairman: David B. Austin, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York; Chairman, Joint Committee on Testing

The following persons discussed the paper presented by Dr. Holt and the implication arising out of the rapidly expanding external testing programs.

Ralph W. Tyler, Executive Director, Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, Stanford, California; Consultant, Joint Committee on Testing

William Baker, Assistant Superintendent for Guidance, East Side Union High School District, San Jose, California

Finis E. Engleman, Executive Secretary, American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C.

Edgar Fuller, Executive Secretary, Council of Chief State School Officers, Washington, D. C.

C. Darl Long, Principal, White Plains High School, White Plains, New York

Frederick M. Raubinger, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey; Member, Joint Committee on Testing

Edgar Stahl, Principal, Emmerich Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Indiana; Member, Joint Committee on Testing

Clyde Vroman, Director of Admissions, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

Following the panel discussion, the meeting was closed with a brief summary of the evening program by Glyn Morris, Assistant Superintendent, Lewis County Schools, Port Leyden, New York; Consultant, Joint Committee on Testing.

Address:

EXTERNAL TESTING PROGRAMS

CHARLES C. HOLT

THE usefulness of tests is patently dependent upon their selection by the local school in terms of clearly established needs and purposes. Tests are of value only as their results are used as one factor within the over-all process of evaluation. This process includes many appraisal techniques. Among these are observation of individual student behavior, anecdotal records, rating scales of pupil characteristics, sociometric devices, and individual interviews and conferences.

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EXTENT OF THE PROGRAMS

There are, at present, approximately twenty national programs. Six of these account for the greatest majority of students tested. The national programs vary from those purportedly designed to help students appraise their own abilities, interests, and educational strengths and weaknesses, to scholarship screening instruments and college entrance examinations.

The external programs involving the greatest number of students are in connection with college admissions and scholarships. Much of the duplication in testing is caused by the requirement of a particular test on the part of external agencies such as colleges, scholarship donors, or state agencies. These programs preclude the possibility that the schools can make a choice from among the competing programs. Because of the requirement of specific tests, it makes small difference whether a school prefers one program over another or even whether the testing is duplicative or redundant.

Since the value of giving any test is dependent upon the uses made of the results, how many tests are required to accomplish the same purposes? For example, one group of respondents to the school questionnaire reports using results of four major tests for the same purposes. The percentages reporting these duplicative uses are approximately the same.

The uses made of results from four major external tests for the same purpose by sizable numbers of the same schools raises questions. Does this overemphasis on tests mean that these schools are restricting the use of other evaluation procedures? Although the schools report little time given to interpretation of the results of each test, is the total time given to interpretation excessive? Is time given to interpretation usurping the time of already overburdened counselors? Is the use of a multiplicity of tests to report pupil progress to parents responsible for the parents' apparent belief in the infallibility of tests? When these tests are used to identify areas for special emphasis, are they determining curriculum?

Programs of state-wide scope are now operating in forty-two states. These range from a single program in some states to as many as six in others. The purposes, plans, types of tests, and grades tested vary greatly. In many instances two or more programs are administered to the same students in the same grade level. Most of the respondents write that the results of these multiplicity of tests are used for identical purposes. If more than one of the tests is used by schools for the same purpose, as many respondents have indicated, *why then is more than one test given to the same students?*

The following comments regarding reasons for participation in a multiplicity of tests are repeated many times in the course of the Joint Project:

There are reasons, pressures, and professional purposes that affect our decision to use these tests. The big reason is that we are expected to participate. Other schools do, so we must.

Public gullibility to testing as a panacea is increasing. The school is placed in a position of denying children if they do not participate in every testing program offered. Guidance counselors are becoming increasingly defensive.

The quality of education is currently measured, to large extent, upon the basis of student achievement on national and state testing programs. Therefore, our school must participate in these programs lest we be considered an inferior school.

The conduct of testing programs under Title V of the National Defense Education Act is spelled out in some detail. However, considerable discretion is left to the states in their individual plans. In each case, the state department of education publishes a list of approved tests from which the local school district may make selections. Many of the states have stockpiled large quantities of tests in order to meet deadlines in expending available grants from the Federal government. Because of these large amounts of unused tests in state "warehouses," many districts are now being pressured to take tests "off our hands" by state Title V consultants. This manifestly expands the practice of "tests for tests' sake" and compounds the problem of unplanned measurement.

SCHOLARSHIPS AND THE SEARCH FOR TALENT

The search for talent involves a wide variety of activities. The talents of the trained guidance counselor are recognized as vital to the education of all pupils. The Joint Project activities indicate that counselors are increasingly becoming centers for testing from the pre-planning and administration to the interpretation of results. Certainly these tasks are defensible in the work of the counselor. However, if a proliferation of testing programs is to usurp his time, what happens to his most vital undertaking, the individual counseling of pupils?

In spite of the fact that scholarships contribute to the cause of education, the attendant competition has presented problems of grave concern to schools. In many sections of the country, the quality of the schools is being judged on the basis of the number of scholarship winners—a ridiculous criteria for judging quality, to be sure—but the effects of this practice must be pointed up and serious questions raised. What are the effects of such practices on the measured thoughtful planning of the curriculum? Is there a tendency for the tests to dictate the curriculum? Are the results to be used to evaluate teachers? Will these programs result in the establishment of production goals that a community may insist on reaching in its schools?

The largest scholarship program tested 550,221 pupils representing 14,549 secondary schools in 1960. From this large number, only 1,008 scholars were selected. The winners were selected on a state quota basis. Thirty-nine per cent of the respondents to a Joint Project questionnaire indicate that the relationship between the numbers tested and those selected negates the value of the program in terms of time and money involved.

This same scholarship program is offered as an instrument to aid in the guidance program. Yet, only twenty-two per cent indicate that the

test serves, to any considerable degree, as an important part of the guidance program. Twelve per cent note that subject matter is being pushed down to earlier years in order to prepare for this program. Eight per cent of the respondents say that there is a tendency on the part of teachers to try to teach directly for this test. Sixteen per cent indicate that courses are being revised, in some way, to prepare for this test.

These data raise serious questions regarding the undue influence and value of this program. Sixty-eight per cent of the respondents say results of this test are used to determine how the achievement of local school groups compares with comparable groups in other schools. Certainly it is legitimate for an educator to want to view his school in relation to others. He also needs to relate his school to local needs. However, the question arises as to whether the trend here is toward standardization rather than toward meeting unique local needs.

COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

The multiplicity of external testing is enmeshed in the whole array of problems posed for students by college admissions. Data gathered in the Joint Testing Project indicate that the role of test scores is growing in importance as a controlling factor in admissions practices. The establishment of cutting scores to determine selection, the failure to use cumulative data about students which has been carefully developed throughout the previous twelve years of school, and the sparsity of measurement research as it applies to admissions at the local level, all indicate the overemphasis on test scores.

Approximately seventy per cent of the administrators, from all sections of the country, who responded to a questionnaire indicate an almost complete lack of information as to the real bases for admitting students to the higher institutions.

The current status of external testing programs appears to have some relationship to prestige factors. Two cases will illustrate this relationship. One liberal arts college now requires candidates to write tests published by one of the major college admissions agencies. No student may be admitted to this institution without having taken and presented the appropriate test scores. The college shows no evidence of defensible planning for this program and has no local studies in progress regarding its usefulness. They readily admit that the prestige factor is a prime reason for requirement of the test. They mention the importance of being in the same league with those institutions commonly regarded as "prestigious."

The same condition was found in one university. Although the stated purposes of the two institutions cited here vary greatly, they have selected the same testing agencies for the same inadequate reasons. It may well be true that these two institutions are in a minority. However, until the use of tests in higher institutions is made clear, many of their test requirements will remain suspect.

COSTS AND TIME SPENT IN EXTERNAL TESTING

External testing programs have added a new cost to public education. The costs of these programs are, in many instances, paid by the students. This is encouraged by many programs and publishers. The programs also often suggest a fee, in addition to the cost of the tests, for the payment of proctors, thus further increasing the cost to students.

The Joint Study reveals considerable variation in the costs and time required for the external programs throughout the country. These two elements vary from none for the very small number of schools who do not participate in any of the programs to those where students spend up to twenty-three hours taking tests and twenty dollars on test fees.

Another case appears to be typical of those responding. The school has an enrollment of 1,725. Because of financial limitations, the number of professional staff members is at a minimum. There is only one counselor. Because of the shortage of staff, the school's total testing program is at a minimum. They participate in two external testing programs. This counselor's time spent in the school's testing program includes pre-test organization, pre-test teacher instruction, distribution of materials, testing, make-up tests, collection of test materials and test data, graphing results, *etc.* The total amount of time spent in these activities by the counselor was one hundred hours. One clerk also spent approximately one hundred hours in the same activities.

While the school's testing program is important, it is essential that we be realistic. The one available person in the above mentioned school spent approximately twelve and one-half days in test activities. The results remain to be interpreted to the students and others eligible to receive them. Can the school afford this time? It is easy to say that they need additional staff, but the plain truth is, they do not have, and under present circumstances are not likely to have. The situation in this school is typical of a great number of schools throughout the nation.

One other typical situation helps clarify the amount of testing time and money spent on external programs. The school represented below has an enrollment of 1,340 students. Approximately fifty-three per cent of the graduates attend institutions of collegiate rank.

<i>Test</i>	<i>Student Cost</i>	<i>Student Time</i>	<i>Staff Time</i>
A	\$1.00	3 hours	4 hours
B	\$1.00	3 hours	4 hours
C	\$6 to \$15	4 to 7 hours	—
D	\$3.00	4 hours	—
E	None	1 hour	2 hours
F	\$4.00	6 hours	—
G	None	4 hours	—
H	None	2 hours	3 hours
I	None	2 hours	3 hours

Added to the students' costs and time is the factor that three of the tests must be taken at locations as far as one hundred miles away. Many students who are considering both a military academy and an engineering school must make three out-of-town trips, spend twenty-three hours taking tests and twenty dollars on test fees.

It is the professional opinion of the staff in the school represented above that seven out of the nine tests listed measure essentially the same things. They also report a growing anti-test attitude on the part of even their best students.

EXTERNAL TESTS AND THE CURRICULUM

The effects of external testing upon the curriculum is perhaps the most serious threat in the whole problem. Eighty per cent of the respondents to the school questionnaire view this as extremely grave.

Approximately thirteen per cent of schools sampled in the Joint Project report the changing of courses in one or more subject areas to earlier school years for the purpose of preparing students for certain external testing programs.

Eight per cent of the schools report that teachers in those schools try to teach the test content. Many further report the development of syllabi for this purpose. Over seventy per cent of the schools express the feeling that the current most popular external tests aim at some concept of what test makers think should be taught.

An average of nine per cent of the schools sampled report the establishment of special sections of certain courses to prepare students for a specific testing program. The greatest number reporting this do so in the interest of greater student success in gaining admission to colleges.

Most of the major testing agencies disclaim either the desire or the ability to influence curriculum. However, recently one of the most noted test makers and leaders in the field of measurement was quoted as saying, "Not only do these tests influence the curriculum, they should." This statement is not likely to be accepted by thoughtful educators who bear the responsibility for planning programs of education in a wide variety of settings.

Sixth General Session

Tuesday, February 14, 9:30 a.m.

COBO HALL

Presiding: Eugene S. Thomas, Principal, Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan; Second Vice President, NASSP

Invocation: The Right Reverend Richard S. Emrich, Ph.D., Episcopal Bishop of Michigan, Detroit, Michigan

Music: Choir, Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan; *Thomas Kasdorf*, Director; Eugene S. Thomas, Principal

Address (excerpts):

WHAT NATO STANDS FOR

M. ALBERICO CASARDI

I AM fully conscious of the honor of having been asked to speak to you in the absence of Mr. Spaak. I am no less conscious of the corresponding responsibility it imposes upon me. I feel, in fact, that in talking to you today I am also in a way speaking to the American Youth. Because it is upon you that the inspiring task of educating them lies. It largely depends on you whether the millions of boys and girls entrusted to you will become good citizens—aware of their rights but also fully aware of their duties toward others, in their own countries and in the world at large; aware also of the full purport of the problems which surge around us, and, therefore, intellectually and morally equipped to face them.

This is also why we, in NATO, rely on you and need you, the educators, to help us to explain why NATO exists, what NATO stands for. It is only if NATO has the full support of our public opinion that it can properly accomplish its objectives.

I do not propose to go into the background of events which brought NATO into being. The time available to me is too short, and anyway it is not the past we are concerned with, but rather the present and the future. I will merely remind you that at the time the Washington Treaty was signed, NATO's immediate objectives were relatively easy to define. Its immediate purpose was to ensure the military defense of what remained of free Europe and, behind this defensive shield, to proceed to its political and economic reconstruction. I would further emphasize a point we should never forget but be proud of; namely, that this objective has been fully attained. The Soviet steam roller in Europe has been

M. Alberico Casardi is Deputy Secretary General of NATO, Paris, France.

stopped and Europe has recovered her prosperity and her self-confidence. What is more, this has been attained without recourse to war.

In the meantime, however, the world has gone on rolling. The West is today faced by a challenge, which is no longer exclusively European and no longer exclusively military. If the ultimate problem is fundamentally the same, the defense of the free world, its components, however, have very much changed.

The Communist world has coined a definition for the current stage of the struggle between East and West. They call it "peaceful coexistence." Whoever chose this definition deserves a place of honor among leading propagandists. The expression is diabolically clever and diabolically misleading. Suppose someone told you that he wanted to live in peace side by side with you, could you do anything else than accept? The contrary would mean that you would prefer going to war against him. Let us, however, have a clear understanding of what, in Communist vocabulary, "peaceful coexistence" actually means and explain clearly to public opinion the apparently extraordinary fact that peaceful coexistence does not mean peace—it means a bitter struggle.

I can think of no better way of enlarging on this subject than by going to the source and referring to the explanations furnished by Mr. Khrushchev himself. I shall limit myself to quoting two of Mr. Khrushchev's statements, choosing them from among the many for the very good reason that they are short and that they are to the point.

In a speech at Novosibirsk, some time early in November 1959, Khrushchev expounded: "Coexistence is the extension of the struggle of two social systems. . . . We believe this is an economic, political and ideological struggle but not a military struggle."

In another speech to electric power workers on November 28, 1959, Khrushchev said: "As far as relations between socialist and bourgeois ideologies are concerned, there can be no coexistence and we do not conceal this."

Allow me to dwell on these various points and assess what they imply for NATO. First, I shall take the statement that peaceful coexistence is *not* a military struggle. This is a statement which calls for serious qualifications. Mr. Khrushchev himself explained at the Twentieth Congress of the Communist Party the reasons why he considered that war between the Communist and the Free world was, to quote his words, "no longer inevitable." The reason was, he said, "the constant increase of the forces of peace in the world." Translated into Western language, this means: "because of the increase of Soviet military might."

I am ready and happy to accept Khrushchev's confession of heresy in admitting the fallacy of the Marxist tenet of an *inevitable* armed conflict between the Communist and Capitalist worlds. I am less ready to accept, his explanation of such a heresy. I also believe that there is something more decisive than the longing for peace—which certainly *exists* in the

hearts of the greater part of mankind, including Russians—that renders war today, if not impossible, at least improbable.

The fact is that, in the past, war and victory were perfectly clear notions, and had precise implications. They meant that, after a painful period, the victorious party could look forward to the possibility of territorial expansion, the increase of political power, and material benefits which were often very big. Victory was often the prelude to a new departure in the life of the nation which achieved it.

Caesar, Frederick II, Napoleon, and even Hitler, when they built up their military power, knew, or at least believed, that they would be able to make use of it, that they could bring war to the heart of their enemies' countries and yet, at the same time, protect their own people from a similar invasion. This is no longer the case today with the coming into being of atomic weapons and their long-range, accurate means of delivery.

Mr. Khrushchev, to take *his* case, has set up the most formidable military power that Russia has ever possessed. He is probably able to destroy completely his enemies, and even—what finesse!—to destroy them several times over. And yet, on the other hand, he cannot use this machinery he has been building up because he is unable to protect his own people from a fate as cruel as the one he can inflict on his enemies.

If therefore, a war today between the free world and the Communist world is—to use Khrushchev's words—no longer inevitable, this is not because Russia is armed to her teeth, but because she is faced with a Western bloc, capable of defending itself with the same weapons on which Russia relies, and determined to do so. Were the West unarmed or wavering in its determination to defend itself, I have little doubt, if any, that Khrushchev would quickly take these military short-cuts which he so eloquently repudiates today in his "peaceful coexistence" formula, in order to hasten the final objective of Communist world domination.

Nor is this disgruntled guesswork. Khrushchev has indicated as much himself by his past veiled threat about a possible atomic action against the United States in defense of Castro's Cuba or against Belgium in defense of Lumumba's Congo. More clearly still, in the course and at the conclusion of their recent various meetings to discuss the implications of peaceful coexistence, the Communist leaders have left no doubt that in their interpretation of peaceful coexistence, the war which they consider no longer inevitable, and which indeed they desire at all costs to avoid, is merely a general; namely, an atomic war. And this simply because it "does not pay." Short of a nuclear war, Communism has no intention of refraining from instigating subversion (they call it "liberation"), or from direct or indirect intervention (as in the case of the Congo and Laos), or from means of military pressure, or even from military action in the case of a "just" war.

The first point I want to make is that if peaceful coexistence means nothing more, but also nothing less, than having successfully dispelled the immediate menace of an unprecedented atomic destruction, this can be claimed as the direct consequence of the setting up of NATO, and confirms by itself the continued necessity of NATO as a military Alliance.

The first task of NATO must, therefore, unfortunately remain the one of maintaining a defensive machine capable of deterring aggression and, within its framework, ensure, that together with the atomic deterrent—our ultimate guarantee against a general war—there may also be available the means to avoid, or at least contain, all other forms of aggressive military action and all so-called "local wars."

Let there be no misunderstanding. I am very far from advocating that NATO should stand for a further race in armaments or even their maintenance of the present level. If NATO's first objective was to deter aggression, by setting up an efficient Western defense, its ultimate hope has always been to reach a general and controlled disarmament—wherein lies the only real guarantee of a lasting peace. But let me repeat: disarmament must be both general and controlled, because if it is not both, it is not real disarmament. It must also be accompanied by agreed practical and operative procedures for the settlement of disputes, for the respect of international obligations, and for the preservation of world peace.

Let me call your attention to this point. A world totally and absolutely disarmed—in keeping with the proclaimed Soviet propagandistic proposals—but a world deprived at the same time of an effective international police force and of a supranational objective, fully independent and full-powered world tribunal to command that force absolutely (and by this I mean a tribunal which could in no way be paralyzed by any right of veto) that world would not be one of peace and order, but, on the contrary, a world of arbitrariness and of strife.

This is then—a general and controlled progressive disarmament and agreed procedures for the settlement of disputes—what NATO stands for.

But now to come back to Khrushchev's conception of peaceful coexistence. If it is now impossible for Communism to achieve its hope of world domination by force of arms, what will be its new approach? Khrushchev has clearly explained to us this also. This is where peaceful coexistence comes in. It is, I remind you, an extension of the struggle in the political and economic field. A struggle which, Khrushchev has clearly reminded us, is "without possibility of compromise."

This is the challenge. We can face up to it only on two conditions. The first is that we clearly recognize the nature of the struggle. On this score, volumes are being written every day. It would be presumptuous of me to pretend that I can sum it up in a few sentences. I shall try however to indicate the general framework.

There is at present in operation throughout the world a number of factors which are completely transforming it by a process so deep and

so rapid that the proper term would really be "revolutionising." These factors can be brought under three major headings:

The first one is the direct result of the dynamic force of technical progress in all fields and in all countries. Its immediate forefather is the great Industrial Revolution which began in the West, and as a matter of fact in a limited part of the West, and which for a long time conferred upon it an unlimited economic, political, and military ascendancy. With the spread of progress to other countries, this leadership is waning. What is not waning however, but on the contrary is growing more forceful every-day is the impatient expectation to share in the benefits which progress may give.

In every country there is a gap between economic expectations and the degree in which they can be fulfilled. Where the gap is widest, as in the under-developed countries and where it is more difficult to close, because of natural or human factors, the impatience can become a very serious political danger. Let me add that the material and moral upheaval created by this economic development in the general field of the traditional habits of life and of previous social structures—serious enough as it has been and still is in the West notwithstanding the relatively progressive nature of this development which has practically spread over two centuries—tends to become absolutely explosive in the more primitive societies where the gap between the past and the future is so infinitely wider and where the time available to bridge it usefully and safely is so dramatically shorter.

The second factor is nationalism—originally a Western idea, which is now sweeping the world. It has largely become a revolt against the remnants of Western colonialism and indeed of all the privileged positions still claimed by Westerners. Even though colonialism is rapidly disappearing, the resentment against it remains alive and forms a backlog of anti-Western and anti-white feeling.

The third factor is the demographic explosion. If present trends continue, the population of the world may double or even treble in a matter of decades. This precludes any prospect of economic betterment in those very areas of the world which are in greatest need of it.

These are then briefly the forces in operation. The problems they raise are colossal in themselves. Their adequate solution is made tragically urgent by the Communists' determined effort to turn these forces to their own advantage. The Communist challenge and the Western response to it must be seen against this background.

If this is the challenge, the second question is then: How are we equipping ourselves to meet it? In the first place, by realizing that the challenge is not a challenge of the USSR to one among us, to the most powerful one of us. It is a challenge of the Communist world to the entire free world. There is no single nation of the free world which can meet this challenge alone. There is also no single nation of the free world which can afford to feel unconcerned about it, or still worse, to

sit on the fence. The challenge is one which we must meet together, through an effective coordination of efforts based on as full an agreement as possible on objectives. NATO is the obvious answer. It is also at present the only available answer. In the political field I would quote, as the first object of this co-operation, the necessity of a constant effort toward eliminating all causes of misunderstanding and divergencies among the member countries. I hardly need dwell on this necessity because it is so obvious. Actually differences have existed, exist, and will continue to recur among member countries. There is no reason to dramatize them. They are congenital to the origin and character of our Alliance, which is a community of free and sovereign nations, and neither a super-state nor an artificial pyramid, like the Soviet bloc, wholly subservient to the will of one country. Experience has happily shown that the spirit of mutual confidence and reciprocal reliance, and the full recognition of the vital common purpose, have been hitherto amply sufficient to bridge over successfully such differences as may arise.

A second aspect of political cooperation consists in the establishment and consolidation of a common political front, *vis-à-vis* the political offensive of the Soviet bloc. Again this is nothing new. Ever since the formation of NATO, Soviet diplomacy has actively pursued the objective of dividing the Allies, by endeavoring to play one against the other. It continues to do so, sometimes by attempting to spread the seed of suspicion, sometimes by flattery, sometimes by menace, always by trying to influence, over the head of the respective governments, those which the Soviet propaganda machine considers the occasional weak spots in the public opinion of our various countries.

Both these aspects of political cooperation are essentially defensive. A third and over-all and more dynamic aspect consists in building up an always better common understanding of the political developments which concern the Alliance and of harmonizing, to the fullest possible extent, the attitude and, if necessary, the action of NATO members in respect of these developments. There is nothing new in this general objective. What is new is the progressive realization that this objective can no longer be limited to the original NATO area, the realization that we must rid ourselves of what has been called the complex of the Maginot Line, that it is of no avail for us to concentrate in building up our defenses on the Elbe if we are going to find ourselves outflanked in the East or taken by the rear in Africa. If it is recognized, on the other hand, that challenge is world-wide and that NATO is our answer, it is futile to believe that NATO can fulfill its function by refusing to look out of the windows of our restricted territorial perimeter.

The natural corollary of political co-operation is cooperation in the economic field. This problem has essentially two sides to it. The first one concerns the interest and responsibility which NATO has to ensure a healthy economic development in the countries of the Alliance. This is essentially the meaning of the famous Article 2 of the Atlantic Treaty

and there is nothing new in all this. What is new, is the challenge posed to us by the Soviet's economic developments and by their boast of overtaking Western production as a result of their new seven-year plan which should establish Russia as the leading industrial power of the world. Under the circumstances, the question arises: Is NATO doing enough? Could it not do more in the spirit of Article 2?

I should like in this connection to make a special reference to NATO cooperation in the scientific field. I hardly need to explain why and to what extent the future of the West will depend on the tempo of the progress it will attain in the scientific and technological field. The development of a common action in this field is, therefore, in itself desirable for social and economic reasons. Faced with the undeniable results achieved by Russia in this field, a concerted effort by the West, in order not to be outstripped, has now become an urgent necessity.

To ensure a methodical exchange of scientific information (or secrets) among all the members of the Alliance. There is something nonsensical—as Mr. Spaak has often pointed out—that for reasons of secrecy or worse still, because of a lack of the proper machinery, the scientists in the various countries of the Alliance should be obliged to discover or invent all over again, what others among them have already discovered or invented. or, worse still, what the common enemy has already discovered and invented. Also another phase of this scientific information in which you, ladies and gentlemen, have a decisive word to say, and a vital and inspiring mission to accomplish, is that of creating the best possible conditions for the formation of the new ranks of scientists and technicians.

The second, and by far the most important aspect of economic cooperation, concerns the relations of the Western nations with the under-developed countries of the world. I fully and deeply share the conviction so often and eloquently voiced by Mr. Spaak, that it is in Asia, in Africa, and in Latin America that the destinies of the free world will be decided. The Kremlin leaders are good psychologists. They fully realize that our Western public opinion will be far less alarmed by apparently humanitarian and peaceful initiatives taken in the under-developed areas of Asia and Africa, than by more ominous actions along our national borders. Let us fully realize on the other hand that, if Communism manages to impose its system in those three continents, we, the defenders of Western civilization, devoted to individual and political liberty, may well find ourselves in a quarter of a century a tiny minority surrounded by an indifferent or a hostile world. When that time comes it will be very easy for our opponents to settle our fate whenever it suits them.

It may seem ridiculous that the Soviet activities in this field should pose a threat to us. Our trade with the under-developed countries is far greater than that of the Soviet bloc and so will it remain in the foreseeable future. Our aid is likewise much greater than that of the Soviets. Nevertheless—by selecting appropriate targets for their activities, by

providing assistance for spectacular projects, by concluding agreements without any apparent reference to commercial or political considerations—the Soviets have gained influence out of all proportion to their effort. And their activities are unceasing and widening.

The simple situation is that, in the Communist world, all economic action, without exception, is directed to further the political cause. Soviet economic initiatives in the under-developed areas are no exception to this rule. On the contrary, they are its highest and most dangerous expression.

This is not so in the free world. Economic orthodoxy, competition, and individualism are still the golden rule. I may perhaps venture to give you an example better to illustrate my thought: Following upon events with which you are all familiar, the United States decided they would not, in the future, buy the Cuban sugar crop. The answer of the Communist world came within forty-eight hours: "If you won't buy the sugar crop, we will."

Imagine for a moment a reverse case. Suppose a Communist country were in difficulties with the USSR; suppose the USSR suddenly refused to buy an important part of its production and the Western world were faced with this situation. Do you imagine we should find the answer within forty-eight hours? I hate to think how many meetings of experts would be needed before perhaps finally reaching a decision which would in any case have lost all its propaganda value by the time it was made? And secondly, do you believe for one instant that Moscow would allow one of its satellites to accept, without question, the aid which would be proffered to it? It is clear that we cannot be indifferent to facts like these.

Now I am not trying to recommend the abandonment of economic orthodoxy or to take in any way a stand against the principle of competition, but I do want to submit to you the following points:

Firstly, the fact is that the efforts of individual countries to counter the Soviet economic penetration are clearly not enough. Something has to be done to co-ordinate the efforts of individual countries.

Secondly, our objective is not merely economic but political. This co-ordination must be guided by a political thought. This may possibly mean stretching an economic point; more probably it will mean considering the necessity of establishing political priorities.

I believe that, in the field of economic and political co-ordination, NATO has a special role to play. There is, after all, no other body in the world which has the same interest as NATO to counter this aspect of the Soviet offensive.

And now to come back to Khrushchev and the last point in his definition of peaceful coexistence. It is, he has said, an ideological conflict, and there can be no coexistence between the two ideologies. On this last score, I fully agree with him. The Twentieth Century is a decisive period in history. What we are witnessing today is not merely a struggle between two opposing political forces, but a clash between two civiliza-

tions. The victory of one side or the other will set the pattern of Man's evolution for centuries to come.

This having been stated, what is the essence of the conflict between the two civilizations? Do we rightly assess it? There are plenty of people in the world who are anti-Communist. I am not sure that they are always so for the right reason.

And yet this is, I feel, the paramount issue, since there can be no battle waged successfully, no struggle won, unless it is inspired by a full understanding and an absolute conviction of the cause we want to defend. First of all, there are those who are frightened by the social reforms which Communism has achieved, which must not be under-estimated. They are wrong. We should never be afraid of social reform or stand aloof from whatever can bring to men greater equality in their way of living.

It is also a mistake to be anti-Communist because of antipathy toward their economic system. I would not dream of denying the value as well as the interest of comparing the respective merits of a free enterprise and a managed economy, but I refuse to believe that the differences of opinion are sufficient to provoke lasting discord and still less the resort to a cataclysmic war which would materially destroy both contendants. These social and economic quarrels are only the outward, superficial symptoms of an infinitely graver and more deep-seated conflict.

It is very difficult to sum up in a single formula what constitutes the essence of our civilization. Yet I believe that such a formula exists and, although constant repetition has made it commonplace, it has lost for me none of its power and still moves me as it did the first time I heard it. That formula is: "Respect for the individual." Everything we treasure is to be found in this simple phrase. It is the key to our personal behavior, it sets the pattern of our relationship to others. It even guides our political life, since there can be no respect for the individual without democracy, no respect for human values without social justice. Tyranny and poverty are both incompatible with this belief.

It is on this plane that we can identify the essence of the clash between the two civilizations. Admittedly Communism postulates the improvement of the worldly material lot of mankind, indeed it glorifies this objective as the supreme one. But for this purpose, it admits no limit to the sacrifices imposed on the individual which, in the "scientific" pattern of Communism, is merely an objective, an instrument, deprived not only juridically, but also morally of all the natural rights which to us are fundamental.

Now, to mine coal, produce steel, discover oil, master the atom, launch sputniks into outer space—all this is important and can even be inspiring. But it is not everything. We must not, I feel, allow ourselves to be taken in by this purely materialistic challenge. There are other things in the world beyond economic rivalries, statistics, graphs. I am referring to the right we claim to the belief that we are more than mere producers

of worldly wealth, to the certitude that there is something within us that transcends the purely material in mankind—of the right we claim to express our thoughts, and the obligation we feel that others should be free to express theirs.

Thus far with regard to the moral aspects of the conflict, which by these reasons alone allow for no moral compromise. This is bad enough in itself, but we could, with a certain dose of cynicism, afford to ignore it. After all it is not the way their society is run which brings us necessarily in conflict with the Soviet bloc. Tolerance of other peoples' beliefs and ways of life is, after all, one of the basic principles of liberalism. Our tolerance, however, is subject to others not pretending to educate *us* and imposing upon us their particular ideology or customs.

This is exactly the point which makes our conflict with the Communist world not merely morally unbridgeable, but also mortally dangerous, in the fact that the Communists pretend, as an indissoluble aspect of their ideology, to impose their principles on the rest of the world. Since they believe it to be "scientific," their ideology admits no exception. This is why, within the Soviet controlled glacis, deviationism is the greatest of crimes, to be crushed ruthlessly whenever possible: through physical violence if necessary, as in the case of Hungary, or through more subtle means, when sufficient, as in the case of the abject self-criticisms of a Bulganin, or in the mortification of a Pasternak.

And this leads me to my conclusive remarks. There are three points I want to make. The first one is a profession of faith. Unless we are untrue to what we say we believe, we must also believe that the Communist system is so contrary to our intellectual and moral imperatives that it cannot avoid, in the long run, the natural laws of evolution. I think there are facts which can confirm this belief. The policy of appeasement initiated by Khrushchev shortly after Stalin's death, was primarily directed to weakening the anti-Communist opposition in the Western world. The consequences were completely opposite. They were not felt in the free world, but within the Communist world itself. The revolts of East Berlin, Poland, and particularly Hungary proved to us in an inspiring way that there still were beyond the Iron Curtain men and women who were ready to die in the name of liberty and in the defense of human dignity. I think we can draw the inspiring confirmation that there are certain human truths which are eternal and which even ten years of Communist domination cannot erase.

Now I wonder if it is too bold to think that something of the kind might happen with time even in Russia itself. We must place to the credit of Russia the very considerable progress it has registered in the field of education. There would never have been sputniks without that. But I think it is legitimate to question whether today you can govern a people of 200 million men, whose minds have been opened, whose imagination has been awakened, who cannot help questioning the validity of the dogmas which condition their daily lives, by the same methods

with which in 1919 a small minority imposed their system on an amorphous, illiterate, and half-starved mass.

Khrushchev has recently committed a heresy by proclaiming that a war between the two systems is not inevitable. He may easily be brought to commit others. Khrushchev continually tells us that there are contradictions in the Western world. He is quite right; such contradictions do exist. But it may well be that we shall soon witness contradictions in the Communist camp also. We are already witnessing the emergence of a rich Communism next to a poor Communism. We can already note certain modifications in the political attitude and even in the conception of a pacific coexistence as between Russia followed by her European satellites, on the one hand, and China on the other.

The second point I would like to make is that even though we do and must, if we are coherent, believe in this evolution, we must obviously not be under the illusion that it will come overnight. Nor have we got any way of predicting what the ultimate consequence will be, either in the international or in our internal spheres. I venture to predict that the picture at that time will be a very different one from what it is now on both sides of the fence. In the meantime, we must guard against the mortal danger of letting our wishful thinking run away with our better judgment; of persuading ourselves that a swallow is spring; or letting impatience or frustration induce us to lower our guard. Above all, we must avoid thinking that this evolution can in any way relieve us of the responsibility we have to try and hasten it and consolidate it.

What I mean by that is that we must not merely proclaim our principles, we must be ready to live by them. We must recognize the responsibilities that are imposed on us in the field of human social progress. We must not only proclaim our convictions, we must also prove that our system is right, and we must prove it, not only to our selves, but also to others. We must do so at home by promoting better justice, better equality, better productivity, more efficiency, and all of this in the framework of that basic principle of Western civilization, which is respect for the individual.

In the wider international field we must recognize, not only the responsibility, but also the interest that we have in promoting elsewhere the progress which we want and consider necessary in our own countries.

The last point I want to make is obviously that we must always be physically and materially ready to defend our principles.

It is by these three conditions: true convictions; readiness to live up to them, determination to defend them; that we can confidently look forward to the future. I would like to warn you that if by any chance we fail on any one of these three conditions, we may not only lose our soul, but possibly lose our shirt, as well. Ladies and gentlemen, it is by these three conditions that NATO stands.

Junior High-School Luncheon

Tuesday, February 14, 12:00 Noon

GRAND BALLROOM, SHERATON CADILLAC

Presiding: Eugene S. Thomas, Principal, Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan; Second Vice President, NASSP

Address:

DEVELOPING CREATIVITY

DONALD N. FREY

THANK you for inviting me to speak to you today. I am pleased and honored to have the opportunity of meeting with the members of such a distinguished profession.

When I was asked to address this group on the general topic of creativity and how to develop it, I was at first disturbed. Creativity has been a subject of loose conversation by me and around me for years, but I for one had never set down any hard, closely reasoned discussion of the matter. This invitation has caused me to attempt to do so. Also, I believe most industrial research and engineering operators operate pretty much on the same pattern—more concentration on identifying the creative person than on creating and fostering creative people. Accordingly, I shall attempt today a brief discussion of what creativity is, the current interest in creativity, and its recognition, development, and motivation.

While I was considering the role education played in the development of creativity, one of my associates reminded me of a help wanted ad that appeared a couple of years ago in the *New York Times*. It was placed by a Las Vegas hotel and it called for attractive women with Ph.D.'s to work in a floor show. Whether or not the ad was serious, it stimulates a number of interesting thoughts. It struck me as an ultimate illustration of the American faith that the maximum amount of education is good for everyone and for almost every purpose.

Education alone, however, is certainly not the key to creativity, as I shall outline later. Since the first step in creative thinking is a conception of the subject and related problems, I shall attempt to pattern my talk accordingly. Obviously, then, the first point to be dealt with is "What is creativity?"

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I wish I could give you a pat answer for this, but I'm afraid the topic of creativity is one that has its full measure of vagueness; is one obscure in its precise definition; is perhaps an attitude of mind not amenable to measurement, yet is recognizable by its end results. Although I shall attempt a definition, you will, I hope, realize from my preceding remarks that I am being thoroughly subjective and personal and am outlining my own attitudes, beliefs, and opinions.

I would say a person is being creative when he produces something new that is the work of his own thought or imagination. Moreover, the result, be it either new theory or physical device, should be something from a new and original combination of things, knowledge, or imagination. The make-up editor who takes various stories and pictures and consolidates them into a finished publication is not being particularly creative. The man who took the high-style pictures is creative.

Today the word "creativity" is part of the active vocabulary of every director of research and engineering, and of every student of human resources. With characteristics incisiveness, such people are beginning to dissect this thing they recognize but don't fully understand—to find the basic ingredients, to find out if these ingredients can be nurtured, stimulated, and generally made more available.

Prior to World War II, creativeness and its associated problems were almost exclusively in the domain of music, the arts, and literature. Critics were concerned with evaluating the artistic outputs in terms of their creative significance, originality, technique, *etc.* So, why this rather sudden and intense technical interest in creativity?

There are several factors and events that I believe are pertinent. Prior to World War II, relatively speaking, scientists painstakingly accumulated a vast storehouse of basic creative knowledge with little influence on technology or applied science. In one relatively short and steep transient, these ideas were effectively applied by engineers to devices and techniques of extraordinary value, both from an immediate military point of view and from the point of view of our peacetime civilian economy. We are all aware of these remarkable accomplishments. Stated in other words, the time lag between basic scientific finding and technical application is greatly shortened and, further, the proliferation therefrom of technical application is seemingly exponential.

We thus became aware of the value of our equity in basic knowledge and that the addition rate was surprisingly low. We became acutely conscious of the value of creative thinking in basic science and technology and of the degree of our dependence upon something heretofore not appreciated. Moreover, society began to demand the results of creativity as if it were a commodity readily available, which most assuredly it is not.

Another rather disconcerting factor contributing to this unpleasant dilemma is the probable low *per capita* creative accomplishments of Americans as contrasted with other nationals. One can assume that the patent application is one important index of creativeness, though certainly

not the only one, nor necessarily the best one. On this basis, however, inventiveness *per capita* per year in the United States measured by patent applications shows a peak after World War I and thereafter a decline of about forty per cent. The inventive rate in Great Britain is down only by sixteen per cent from a 1928 peak. In addition, *per capita* patent applications in Great Britain now exceed those in the United States.

It would be interesting indeed to know what the true inventive rate *per capita* is in Russia. Based on recent reports, Russia is training technologists at a much greater rate than we are. However, I am constrained to mention in this connection that quality as well as quantity needs to be considered. Much of the post "Sputnik" popular press discussion of "How many engineers do you have?" was, I felt, wide of the mark. Also, the brute strength technique for increasing total creative output by merely increasing the total number of technologists is filled with dangerous consequences to other parts of our national economy. For one thing, we need more creative individuals in all walks of life. *The real effort* on a broad front should be directed toward increasing the *quality* of our *per capita* creativeness in all intellectual areas, be it the physical sciences, the humanities, fine arts, or social sciences.

As I mentioned earlier, one part of this discussion is recognition of creativity. To this end, let me back track to the definition of creativity but this time outline some fine structure. George Russell Harrison in his book, *What Man May Be*, has this to say:

Nature has developed at least three successful ways of solving problems. The first, that of organic evolution, is trial-and-error. Try every possibility, let the things that do not work perish, and in time you develop many devices that work very well. When the brain had reached a certain degree of elaboration, it became possible to arrive at similar ends much more quickly, and by reason to rule out in anticipation many experiments doomed to failure. Then came a third method—the use of imagination—which enables man to save much of the effort of logic, and to jump by intuition to conclusions which he can then test.

True intuition is like a leap forward in the dark, across an empty space, which ends with one finding himself on solid ground again. Every scientific generalization is intuitive, for while the scientist may see a phenomenon just by looking, as at Newton's apple, he can use creative imagination and intuition to relate this apple to the moon, and so discover the Universal Law of Gravitation.

This is the nut of the matter I am discussing with you today—the phenomena with which to start, I believe, any clinical investigation of creativity. "Imagination" or "true intuition" or creativity—all are the same thing. Some of those present here today must have experienced something like this "leap forward." You found a solution, but don't know how you got there. Or perhaps you have worked with a gifted student who could answer a problem sometimes in a new way, and who couldn't explain how he got there.

Some famous scientists have tried to give accurate accounts of their great discoveries. They can usually trace out the first two steps of Dean

Harrison's outline, but can usually only give a rather mystical account of the third, or in any case only an unsatisfactory explanation of how they got their end result—when measured against normal and logical steps in reasoning. Some scientists have noted their inability to explain how they got their result. This must be akin, incidentally, to the difficulty artists, poets, and others of similar activity have in explaining how they composed something or painted a good work.

In any event, the point in raising all this is to point out that the one surest identification of the creative child is to observe one who is going through step three of Dean Harrison's three steps in problem solving.

This identification may be quite restrictive, however, and I believe some recent work by Jacob W. Getzels and Philip W. Jackson is of usefulness in identifying the creative child. These two University of Chicago educational psychologists have been conducting experiments for the past four years or so to develop a new concept of "giftedness" or, as they rightly call it, "creativity." They used a sample group of about 500 teenagers ranging from the sixth grade through the senior year in high school. The group selected for study was composed of two types of students: the "highly intelligent" and the "highly creative." Children who were high in both creativity and intelligence were not included. Among some of the conclusions reached by the pair as a result of their experiments are:

The emphasis on sense of humor is so marked among the creative group that it is one characteristic that sharply sets apart the high-creativity group from all other groups.

The high IQ child seeks to possess now those qualities which he believes will lead to success in adult life. The creative child does not use this goal as criterion in selecting his present aspirations.

The high IQ child holds to a self-ideal constant with what he believes his teachers would approve. The creative child shows a negative correlation with such a model.

In other words, the high IQ children tend to "converge" upon stereotyped meanings, to perceive personal success by conventional standards, and to move toward the model provided by the teachers. On the other hand, the high-creative children tend to "diverge" from stereotyped meanings, to integrate fantasy and reality, and to perceive personal success by unconventional standards.

"It is," according to the two psychologists, "as if the high IQ children seek out the safety and security of the 'known,' while the high-creative children seem to enjoy the risk and uncertainty of the 'unknown.'" To tie my two observations together, the creative person is one who enjoys and must go through Dean Harrison's third step.

I have touched upon some of the traits usually associated with the creative person. My next point of discussion is concerned with some of the aspects of developing creativity. My own theory is that most of us are born with more creative intellectual potential than we ever use, and

that much of it atrophies by reason of our childhood experiences in the home, and school, and in the college or university. Therefore, it is my feeling that more can be gained than is generally realized by the elimination of these depressants.

For example, a child is almost continually creating. In the early educational experiences at home, it seems he learns principally by Dean Harrison's third step. Further, frequently reality gives way to imagination and fantasy. Curiosity is an inherent factor in the process of creativity, as well expressed by the child's steady stream of questions such as: "How high is the sky?—Why is it blue?—Where do clouds come from?" In fact, I think the first word children learn after Mother, Daddy and water, is "Why." At least it was so with my six children.

In many homes it is easy to understand how the child loses this early, or almost innate, sense of creativity. When the child's "why" is constantly rebuffed with a "not now son" or "ask me later," he soon comes to the conclusion that asking questions only leads to his parents being unhappy with him. Although it may be inadvertently, his curiosity, or natural bent toward creativity, is stifled. So, commonplace as I must sound, I believe the development of creativity starts in the home and all too often is ended in the home.

And now let us consider where the professional educator can play the vital role. Honors courses, or accelerated courses, in a variety of fields in grade school, junior high school, and senior high school are very popular these days. These courses are designed to help the creative and above normal intelligence student and as such are surely sound. However, I hope that the efforts to teach fundamentals, to reasons why, to foster originality of thought, *etc.* are not at the expense of the more mundane course content such as addition, subtraction, and multiplication skill in grade-school arithmetic.

There appears to be a warp and woof in course content. The warp is this mundane course work referred to above—the memorization of multiplication tables in grade school, the rote drill on logarithm usage in junior high school, and the remembrance of certain common integrals from Pierce's Table in college. There is a similar warp in physics, chemistry, and English courses. The woof is the common qualities that should be developed in the mind that cross over and between all courses and is thereby universal. The analogy can be extended to point out that one cannot have cloth without a warp and a woof.

These qualities, quoting Dean Harrison again, include "the ability to concentrate, which means learning to keep external or internal sensations from confusing the circuits among our mental switchboards; accuracy of observation, which involves learning to connect the nerve endings bringing in sensations into the proper mental associative circuits; retentiveness of memory, which requires exercising of the brain's storage mechanisms by repeated and new associations; logical reasoning, which is the exercising of switching patterns in formal groups in a way such that the

currents which emerge will coincide with what the external world reveals; improvement in judgment, an even higher faculty that depends on predicting in advance, as a result of outer or inner experience, which circuits will best lead to a correct set of images; sensitivity of association, which involves developing the faculty of interconnecting vast swarms of switchboards without confusion, so that each on demand can be made sensitive to useful currents flowing in any others; and, last and most important of all, creative imagination."

Note that the last one is our old friend the creative imagination. Note also the order of these universal qualities gives the creative imagination last. I suspect that this is literally true for the greater share of creative people.

It is all well and good to teach third-grade pupils the permutative and commutative properties of numbers to whet their appetities and keep their interest up. But we should make sure they can add and subtract, and, with good teaching in college, the true fundamental beauties of our number system will become apparent.

Let me go back and relate this order of teaching to our definition of creativity. It is my thesis that the third step or phase of problem solving, the leaping over logical processes, is accomplished only after the more mechanical side of knowledge is firmly in place. It is as if the mind on a subconscious level utilizes very rapidly all the mechanical knowledge in its leap forward. To complete the analogy the warp is put in place before the woof!

Now that we have discussed the basic traits of creativity and how to develop these attributes, the next area of discussion is this: How can we motivate the person with creative ability to exercise his creative talents to the maximum and produce useful and original ideas?

Creative effort, whether it be in the form of an invention or a painting or a published report, is in itself rewarding. The highest form of inspiration is that which is obtained from the work itself. Creative effort is stimulating and infectious and is perhaps one of the most powerful regenerative influences for further creative effort.

There resides in creative people a compelling need for self-expression with the intellectual thrill of truly creative effort the reward. I would readily concede that this motivating force predominates in many creative people. It is a form of natural motivation that can, and surely must be, cultivated at an early age to be a dominating stimulus for creativity. I doubt whether much can be done for the mature individual who is here deficient to cultivate this type of motivation. At the risk of being cynical, I believe the competition with other factors is overwhelming.

Perhaps one of the most important factors of motivation and corollary to the above is the urge to satisfy man's desire for fame, for recognition by one's intellectual peers and superiors, including such material items as pay. This desire can be all-consuming and manifests itself in the drive to publish, to have inventions, to present papers at meetings, and, in the

case of the very young person, to receive the compliments of his teacher or parents. I believe this factor reaches its competitive climax in the young engineer and scientist in his early thirties.

There are some writers who treat of this ego-social motive with subtle disdain and implied criticism and tolerate it because it is so much with us. This is an error in values.

There is no better technique for stimulating creativity than to exploit this motivation to the fullest. I believe it is important to have, within research groups or within laboratories, actively creative people of outstanding reputation to serve as stimuli. I believe we tend to underestimate the intimate character of this motivating force. It is not sufficient nor effective to be competitive with creative men in distant laboratories.

Many laboratories today have even gone so far as to create a separate salary and title scale for non-supervisory but creative people. This is in an effort to create a separate fulfilling course of recognition. Unfortunately, such a scheme applies best only where the work content and work expected is not too pressured by time, finances, etc. It won't work in many commercial operations where the supervised-supervisor relationship is very rigid.

This brings me to a third factor, and one which has a dramatic bearing on each of the above factors I just mentioned—environment. I am not thinking of the physical environment, but of a specific mental environment—pressure.

It was a wise man who coined the old saying: "Necessity is the mother of invention." Our capacity for creativity seems to be increased when we are operating under pressure, just as our physical capacity is heightened in times of danger. At one time or another, I am sure you have all heard of the fantastic feats of strength performed by individuals when their life, or that of a loved one, was in danger.

I have, innumerable times, seen this same parallel in the field of creativity. For example, I have seen our own engineers at Ford find a solution to a problem on a car in production in three days. The nature of the problem was of such complexity that, if the car had still been in the planning stage, it would have taken three months to solve.

However, it is my personal belief that of the three factors that I have discussed, by far the most effective, the most lasting and important one is the ego-social factor. This also is the one that can be most frequently used to stimulate creativeness.

In the discussion thus far, we have examined the problems of increasing the capability of scientists and engineers to think creatively and, secondly, given the capability for creative thinking, how to go about stimulating it. There is a further bonus to be had in all this. Show me a man who is creative and I will show you a man who can turn easily and successfully to any one of a wide range of careers.

Many men prepare for one career but shift with little or no handicap to another. Executives move from one kind of job to another—often with greater success than if they stick to one last. I have seen a number of persons who were successful in teaching and research move easily to success in business. Consultants tackle problems with which they have little prior acquaintance and solve them readily. In my own experience, I have been amazed at the transferability of abilities and skills as I have shifted from one career to another and from one job to another. What impresses me is how much the requirements for various jobs have in common and how easy it is in most instances to pick up the special knowledge in a particular field.

I do not imply that a person with the universal skills and abilities can overnight become a great mathematician, or physicist, or musician, or writer, or dancer. There are some careers that require special talents, and often prolonged development of those talents. But even in these careers, the basic skills and abilities are always a necessary, if not sufficient, prerequisite. What I am saying is that most careers require the same basic skills and abilities, and in many such careers these basic skills and abilities constitute a substantial part of the requisites for success.

To summarize then I have talked about creativity from several aspects—what it is, the current interest, and its recognition, development and motivation. Finally, I have noted that creativeness is at least a necessary quality of the universal man.

Seventh General Session

Tuesday, February 14, 8:15 p.m.

COBO HALL

Presiding: John M. Sexton, Principal, Northeast High School, St. Petersburg, Florida; Member of Executive Committee, NASSP

Presented by: Music Education Department of the Detroit Public Schools; Homer C. LaGassey, Divisional Director; Isabelle H. Hoersch, Marvel G. O'Hara, and Preston B. Wells, Supervisors; Robert Luscombe, Chairman, H. S. Choral Festival Committee; Larry Teal, Jr., Chairman, H. S. Instrumental Festival Committee. Principal episodes were presented by the following Detroit high schools:

Redford High School Concert Band, Harold Arnoldi, Director; Carl R. Christy, Principal

Cass Technical High School Harp and Vocal Ensemble, Velma Froude, Director; Orvil F. Heft, Principal

Cass Technical High School Symphony Orchestra, Joseph Kertesz, Director; Darwyn Apple, Violin Soloist

Detroit High School Honors Choir, *William Koerper*, Director; *Agnes Hutchins*, Accompanist; *Dolores Dardarian* (Soprano), *Melvin Thompson* (Tenor), and *Robert Jones* (Baritone), Faculty Soloists; accompanied by the Cass Technical High School Symphony Band, *Harry Begian*, Director; Massed Choir of 500 Voices, *Robert Luscombe*, Director; accompanied by the Cass Technical High School Symphony Orchestra

AN EVENING OF MUSIC

REDFORD HIGH-SCHOOL CONCERT BAND

Fanfare *Roy McConnell*
 Coat of Arms *George Kenny*
 A Manx Overture *Haydn Wood*

Harold Arnoldi, Director

CASS TECHNICAL HIGH-SCHOOL HARP AND

VOCAL ENSEMBLE

One Little Candle *J. Maloy Roach*
 Green Sleeves *Old English Lute Melody*
 A-Rockin All Night *Spiritual from St. Helena Island*
 The Bells of St. Mary's *Emmet Adams*

Velma Froude, Director

CASS TECHNICAL HIGH-SCHOOL SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA

Finale from "Symphony in D Minor" *Cesar Franck*
 First Movement from "Symphony Espagnole" *Eduard Lalo*

Joseph Kertesz, Director

Soloist, *Darwyn Apple*, Violinist

(*Darwyn Apple* appeared as soloist with the Detroit Symphony Orchestra at the Young People's Concert on January 28th).

HIGH-SCHOOL HONORS CHOIR

Serenade to Music *R. Vaughn Williams*
 Accompanied by the Cass Technical High School Symphony Orchestra

Faculty Soloists—*Dolores Dardarian*, Soprano

Melvin Thompson, Tenor

Robert Jones, Baritone

Triumphant Song *Norman Della Joia*

William Koerper, Director

Agnes Hutchins, Accompanist

CASS TECHNICAL HIGH-SCHOOL SYMPHONY BAND

Montmartre March *Haydn Wood*

Candide Overture *Leonard Bernstein*

Pines of the Appian Way from "The Pines of Rome" *Ottorino Respighi*

Block "M" March *Jerry Bilik*

Harry Begian, Director

MASSED CHOIR (550 Voices)

Let My Soul Rise in Song *Raymond Rhea*

Song of Victory *Fletcher*

Accompanied by the Cass Technical High School Symphony Orchestra

Robert Luscombe, Director

Eighth General Session

Wednesday, February 15, 1:00 p.m.

BALLROOM, COBO HALL

Presiding: James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania; President, NASSP

Invocation: The Reverend W. Glen Harris, Pastor, First Presbyterian Church, Birmingham, Michigan

Music: Choir, Northern High School, Pontiac, Michigan; Mel Larimer, Director; Philip J. Worgelin, Principal

Introduction: New President and Officers of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Address:

EDUCATION IN THE SIXTIES: A BUSINESSMAN'S VIEW

JAMES C. WORTHY

I APPEAR before you today as a businessman, not an educator. I shall not, therefore, trespass on areas where I am not competent to speak. But there are aspects of the economics of education on which I think I can speak with some authority precisely because I am a businessman.

EDUCATION IS A CONCERN OF BUSINESSMEN

First of all, allow me to document, without belaboring, the point that education is a matter of very immediate and direct concern to the businessman. At the most elementary level of consideration, business has a stake in education because of its own needs for educated personnel. Modern industry requires people of higher education attainments than has ever been true in the past, and industry's needs on this score are inching up year by year. This is reflected, for one thing, in the marked decrease in the numbers and proportions of unskilled labor in the work force. In 1910, unskilled workers represented 36 per cent of all gainfully employed; in 1950, only 20 per cent. The figure for 1960, I am sure, will be smaller still. The decade of the 1960's will see a further substantial decline in the market for unskilled labor, and we can already foresee, in the not too distant future, the virtual elimination of the unskilled worker as a factor in American economic life.

At the other end of the skill spectrum, there has been a phenomenal increase in the number of engineers and scientists employed in industry. This trend will undoubtedly continue, and at an accelerated pace. It

James C. Worthy, at the time of the Convention, was Vice President of Sears, Roebuck & Company, Chicago, Illinois.

has been estimated, for example, that a three per cent increase in gross national product calls for a four and one-half to five and one-half per cent increase in scientific and engineering manpower. Fifty years ago there was one engineer to every one thousand workers; today there is one to every sixty; and in some industries one to every twenty. Similar trends are apparent in other categories of employment requiring high levels of educational preparation. Members of the labor force with only grade school education dropped from 48 per cent in 1940 to 32 per cent in 1957; during the same period, those with high-school education increased from 38 per cent to 50 per cent and those with college education from 13 per cent to 18 per cent.

Simply stated, modern business and industry require educated people; literacy is no longer enough. This trend is more likely to be accelerated than retarded by the continued application of automatic techniques in production, and indeed by the rapid extension of automation in all branches of business. So far from modern industry requiring fewer skilled workers, the very opposite is the case. Fewer workers may be required per unit of output, but those workers are likely to be of much higher skill. Not only on the production line, but also in the offices and sales forces are higher levels of education increasingly required. Especially is this true of supervisory and managerial personnel and of the staff organizations which play so important a role in business today. All other considerations aside, in the interests of business itself there is need for continuously strengthening the American educational system.

There are, of course, other needs served by education. Reference need only be made to the problem of national defense and the sharp competition between the United States and Soviet Russia in the scientific and technological field. As responsible citizens, businessmen are concerned with strengthening the American educational system in the interests of national security.

As responsible citizens, too, businessmen are concerned with education as representing one of the basic American values. Americans have always placed great store in education, not only for its own sake, but also as one of the important channels of mobility whereby young people of modest and sometimes of culturally deprived backgrounds have been enabled to move to higher—and sometimes the highest—levels of American life. Business itself is an important part of this mobility system.

Finally, as a businessman as well as a citizen, the responsible man of business is concerned with education as a means of enlarging and enriching the lives of individual Americans. He is concerned with fostering conditions that are conducive to personal growth, not merely on the part of those who may one day enter his employ, but also on the part of all Americans. American history is instinct with this reaching for personal growth and self-realization. The business system itself is only one manifestation of this drive; it expresses itself clearly in many other aspects of American life. Both in his role as a businessman and in his role as a

citizen—if indeed the two can be distinguished—he has an interest in helping provide constantly improving means whereby personal growth and fulfillment can be achieved. This includes among other things constant improvement in the quality and quantity of education available to the people of America.

Given this interest in education, business is deeply concerned with the critical problems currently facing the American educational system. These problems may be divided, more or less arbitrarily, into two categories; problems related to the quality of instruction, and problems related to the expansion of the school system to accommodate the vast increase in enrollments. No doubt individual businessmen in many communities can make valuable contributions to the improvement of the quality of instruction, but it is with respect to the second set of problems, those dealing with the enlargement of the school system itself, that businessmen *as businessmen* can be of greatest service. These problems involve not only the expansion of physical plant, but also the growth of faculties—and, above all, the provision of the financial resources to enable the schools to meet the demands that will be placed on them in the decade ahead. In business terms, these are problems of plant, manpower, and finance with respect to which businessmen *as businessmen* have special competence.

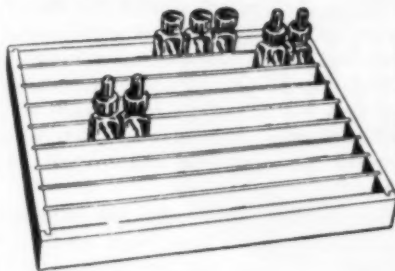
THE POPULATION BULGE

Businessmen are especially concerned with the greatly increased demands being placed on the educational system. In the decade of the 'fifties, public school enrollments rose by over ten million, an increase of better than 40 per cent. A further increase of some seventeen and a half million, or 50 per cent, must be anticipated for the 'sixties. Total public school enrollments ten years hence will be better than twice what they were ten years ago. Gross increases of magnitudes such as these would be serious enough in themselves; they are enormously complicated, however, by two factors: substantial internal population movements, and failure to expand physical facilities in the past.

There would be problem enough if the great increases in school population were evenly distributed in terms of prevailing population densities. This, of course, is not the case. Americans have always been a people on the move, and there are no signs they are about to slow down. The shift from rural to urban is overcrowding city schools and leaving many rural schools under-utilized. Even more serious are population shifts within the metropolitan areas. Between 1950 and 1960, the population of the city of Chicago remained virtually unchanged, but the population of the metropolitan area outside the city limits increased by 50 per cent. Many suburban school districts are desperately over-crowded. Even within the city itself, there are substantial population movements, greatly over-taxing many schools and leaving others virtually stranded.

Super-imposed on these consequences of population growth and movement are the consequences of past failures to maintain adequate educa-

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tional facilities. During the better part of two decades, while the nation labored through a great economic depression, a world war, and the aftermath of war, schools were given a low priority in the allocation of resources at all branches of government. School plants wear out or become obsolescent and must be replaced. Thus the country started the decade of the 'fifties with a great backlog of buildings in need of replacement, and this in the face of an enormous and wholly unexpected increase in student population. In 1956, the White House Conference on Education reported that almost half the states were losing ground in the race with rising enrollments and building obsolescence. The states which were lagging behind were not concentrated in any particular region but scattered throughout the country.

Early in the last decade, the nation awoke—belatedly but sharply—to what was going on. Since then, massive efforts have been made, not only to close the gap but to face up to the need for greatly improving the quality of education. In these efforts, the educators have taken the lead, as they should have, but they have had strong support from the business community. Without that support, the educators would not have been able to command the resources that have been placed at their disposal. Educators and laymen are learning to work together in carrying forward this educational evolution.

During the first half of the 'fifties, some 60,000 new classrooms were built per year. In the second half, this annual rate increased to 70,000. This was only about enough to cover additional enrollments and made little dent in replacement needs. The decade ended with a classroom shortage of about 130,000.

If public school enrollments increase by 50 per cent during the 'sixties, and if a reasonable allowance is made for obsolescence, we will need to build approximately 1,000,000 new classrooms between now and 1970. This compares with roughly 650,000 built during the 'fifties, and gives some clue to the magnitude of the effort that will be required.

THE TEACHER SHORTAGE

Serious as is the problem of providing physical plant for our burgeoning school population, the problem of providing adequate and suitably qualified faculties is even greater—and far more difficult to deal with.

At the beginning of the current school year, there was need for 230,000 additional teachers, with only some 95,000 new college graduates likely to enter the profession. These 95,000 were not sufficient to replace turnover, let alone serve increased enrollments, relieve over-crowding, provide services not now provided, or replace the unprepared.

Teaching is not the only field, of course, which is faced with serious shortages. The country has been made sharply aware, through dramatic advertisements and otherwise, of critical needs in other fields: science, engineering, medicine—to name only a few. Grave as these needs are, they are over-shadowed by our need for teachers.



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As the Educational Policies Commission pointed out in 1956: "The teacher shortage aggravates directly and insidiously shortage in all other fields in which education is required by limiting or reducing the educational achievement of youth in schools and colleges. It has unique potency to multiply other manpower shortages." Beardsley Ruml made the point even more bluntly: "The American society is deteriorating in the sector most critical for future progress and well-being."

A key—but not the only—factor in this deterioration is the low level of salaries prevailing in the teaching profession. Financially speaking, teaching has never been a lucrative profession, but it has tended to fall behind in recent years. A citizens advisory committee on teacher salaries in Winnetka, Illinois—which I had the honor of chairing—recently reported:

We have studied the record of teacher salaries throughout the country over the past fifty years. We have examined the familiar statistics of salary comparisons with truck drivers, bartenders, baggage men . . . with teachers' salaries following behind. We have examined the progress of salaries in other professions, again with teachers far behind. One of the difficulties of establishing clear-cut data on comparisons over the years is that we question whether at any time in our history the teacher enjoyed a recognition in salary and social standing anywhere nearly consistent with his crucial place in our culture.

The committee went on to say (and remember, these were businessmen and other laymen speaking):

We believe that the people of this country do not deliberately choose to pay their teachers so little. We believe the present condition is a product of inertia and general lack of information. We believe that fundamental American values regarding the place of the teacher must be illuminated. The average citizen and taxpayer would probably be startled to learn that he pays twice as much for liquor and tobacco as he does for education . . . or that he pays \$1.75 for amusements against every dollar he pays for education.

It is true that considerable improvement has been made in the past three or four years. Toward the latter part of the decade of the 'fifties, the public began to become aware of the problem. And in this, let me say, the business community supplied significant—though of course not the only—leadership. The work of the Citizens Advisory Committee on Teacher Salaries in my own community is a case in point, and typical of similar efforts that are being made in many other communities across the country.

Nevertheless, the stubborn fact remains that, in terms of its key role in our society and in comparison with going rates in other professions requiring similar educational preparation, the teaching profession is badly underpaid. This is an economic fact, the significance of which is readily apparent to the businessman. When demand substantially exceeds supply, a number of things can happen. One is that the cost of the item or service goes up. Another is that low grade substitutes begin to flood the market. Another is that new and sometimes dramatic resources are discovered or invented to produce a high quality solution to the shortage.

Obviously, the first line of attack needs to be the improving of teacher

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salaries to a point where the teaching profession can compete more effectively in the market for able and talented young people. The consequence of failure to do so will be an influx of low-quality substitutes. We cannot afford to allow a vacuum to be created into which will drift those who are unsuccessful, discontented, intellectually and emotionally insecure and lacking in wisdom and strength.

It will take powerful resources to prevent such a vacuum. Some of these will be improvements in teaching itself. Ways need to be found for teachers to increase substantially their efficiency in working with children. Good teachers are a rare commodity. Not nearly enough unshackled thought has been given to the best use of the teachers' time and powers. This calls for invention and discovery. Virtually every other field of endeavor in the United States has found ways to make specialized talent more efficient. Yet, in an age of infinite technological advance, educational manpower sits not very far from where it was fifty or a hundred years ago. Education must face up to this challenge.

I am aware, of course, of some of the dramatic developments in teaching technology: for example, educational television and so-called "teaching machines." These are in their very early stages, but already they are beginning to show something of their promise. And as has happened in industry, every new technological advance opens up new avenues of improvement, with ramifications far beyond the original device.

One thing that industry has learned, and that teaching must learn also, is that the process of innovation must be conscious and deliberate, that it must be planned. This was one of the lessons of scientific management in industry, which in essence is an effort to analyze what needs to be done and to find the best means of doing it. This, too, is one of the lessons of the industrial research laboratory, which is the most revolutionary force at work in industry today. Industry is finding that investment in research is one of the most fruitful investments it can make—not merely product research, although this is of great importance, but, above all, technological research as an integral part of the process of planned and organized innovation.

Something of this sort is already going on in teaching, but there needs to be a great deal more of it. It is not enough for research to take place in the teacher-training institutions. Industry has found that it cannot rely solely on the universities and government research agencies; more and more, research is being carried on within industry itself. Applied to teaching this means that more and more research must be carried on within the schools and school systems themselves as an integral part of educational administration. And as business has found that research is a sound investment, so too must boards of education learn to appropriate increasing sums to finding ways and means of making teaching more effective. And boards of education must learn to declare, openly and pridefully, a budget item labelled "research and development."

Special attention must be paid to the problems of teaching organiza-



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tion. As industry has learned, any technological innovation requires organizational innovation as well if its potentialities are to be realized. Certainly educational television and teaching machines cannot be utilized effectively without marked changes in school organization. The point I am making is that these changes must be planned and deliberate, the result of conscious effort not merely to fit new technological developments into the educational process, but rather to seek out means for using all that is known to help improve learning and perhaps, in the course of doing so, finding things that are now undreamed of.

All of this only points up further the need for effecting quickly a drastic upward revision in teacher salaries. Invention and discovery of this caliber can only be realized through the application of the best brains that can be brought to bear on the problem, and teaching today is simply not attracting enough people of this kind.

THE NEED FOR INCREASED FUNDS

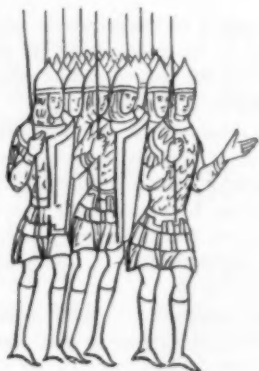
The needs for new school construction, for larger faculties, and for better teacher pay will require a substantial increase in expenditures for education. Considering only the public schools at the elementary and secondary levels, the United States is now spending more than \$10 billion a year. This will have to be increased by fifty per cent by 1965 and doubled by 1970.

This is a very substantial increase and immediately raises the question of from where these additional revenues are to come.

Public schools today are financed largely through local property taxes. This was a reasonably adequate system when a large part of our national wealth was in the form of real property. There is grave doubt that the system is any longer adequate in terms of the current and foreseeable needs of American education. Property taxes are notoriously inefficient and frequently unfair. Moreover, real property is not always distributed in accordance with educational needs. Many school districts in rapidly growing suburban communities with little or no industry are already facing bankruptcy. Antiquated limitations on taxing authority often make the task still more difficult. For these reasons, there is insistent demand that a larger share of educational costs be borne by some form of more broadly based taxation.

One response is various forms of state aid to local education, in recognition of the more varied sources of state income, among which sales taxes are particularly important.

Another response is an increasing demand for some form of Federal aid to education. This is a controversial subject on which reasonable people can differ. It is worth noting, however, that both political parties last year included in their platforms planks calling for Federal grants to the states in support of local public education. It is worth noting, too, that the Committee for Economic Development, an organization of businessmen, recently issued a report incorporating a proposal for Federal



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assistance to states without adequate resources of their own to maintain high-grade educational systems. We seem to be moving in this country toward a consensus that some part, at least, of the cost of public education must be assumed by the Federal government.

As a businessman and as a citizen, I am reluctant to see any additional burden placed on the Federal budget. It is already carrying burdens enough, and the assumption of an additional area of responsibility is a matter for sober thought. I sincerely hope, however, that the public debate on this issue can be kept focused on the concrete problems of educational finance and the dispassionate consideration of viable alternatives.

I do think we need to be alert to the danger of Federal control of educational policies. Without doubt, much of the strength and vitality of the American educational system derives from its essentially local character. Local boards have wide latitude in setting policies for their districts, and by and large their schools are as good or as poor as the citizens of each community want them to be. For the most part, they are pretty good, and the best of them are probably better than they would be if their control had been in other than local hands.

There is a certain blessedness in being able to tax ourselves—to decide that a certain thing needs doing and then assess ourselves for what it costs. This is one of the great rights we have in this country, and we cannot afford to put it in jeopardy.

On the other hand, while we like to think of education as an essentially local problem, an examination of the facts leads to significant qualifications. Americans are highly mobile. The shift and flow of people to and between the great centers of industrial and commercial activity make it increasingly unlikely that the community, or even the state, which pays for the education of an individual will be the one that reaps the benefit of the productive years of his life. The growing centers of wealth and productivity, on the other hand, pay a heavy penalty in lowered efficiency and lowered human standards when much of their labor forces are drawn from areas that have been unable to maintain the level of educational offering characteristic of their own communities. No one knows better than Chicago or Cleveland or Detroit the social and economic penalties resulting from the influx of a working population poorly trained and poorly oriented culturally. Mobile populations of the magnitude we now have create truly national concern for the quality of education provided in every community in America, and the businessman should be one of the first to sense that concern. We are sternly reminded of John Adams' admonition that education is the business of all the people.

There is growing awareness that the great industrial centers serve their own best interests when they help encourage better education in the less economically endowed areas of the country. They not only improve the quality of that portion of the labor force that eventually gravitates to their own areas, but also strengthen the economic and social



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base of the poorer areas and thus create better markets for their own products.

The real issue in financing the rising costs of public education is not so much Federal *versus* state and local, but rather how these costs are to be apportioned among the tax-paying public.

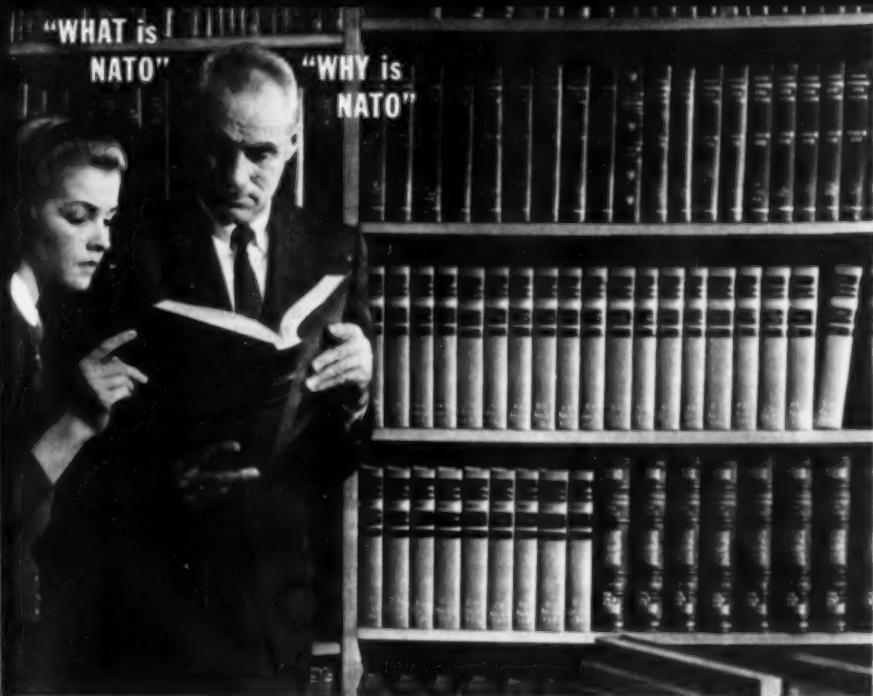
One of the great arguments for the Federal government taking over a larger part of the load is the presumed efficiency of the Federal income tax as a revenue device. In terms of tax-gathering machinery, this is undoubtedly true. But the machine is already bearing a heavy burden. The very efficiency of the machine has been a major factor in the constant assumption of new responsibilities—and new powers—in Washington, for the argument is constantly made that the Federal government can more readily command the revenue required to meet new needs than the state or the municipality.

The rising financial needs of education must be considered in relation to the rising costs of other governmental functions. Some part of these rising costs can no doubt be met from the higher revenues produced by economic growth, without further increase in tax rates. Whether this will be sufficient, however, is problematical.

If present methods and rates of taxation are not sufficient to meet the rising costs of government, sources of new revenue must be found; the only alternative is deficit financing that will lead to inflation and ultimately bankruptcy. The steeply graduated personal income tax and the already punitive corporate income tax can be increased only at real peril to economic growth. If much additional revenue is to be raised through personal income taxes, most of it will have to come from those in the middle and lower tax brackets. Of the net income of all taxable returns, only 14 per cent of the amount remaining after Federal income taxes is estimated to be received by taxpayers with net incomes over \$10,000. There simply is not much income left in brackets above this figure to tax.

The cold, hard facts are that, irrespective of the method of taxation used, any additional tax revenue must be collected primarily from taxpayers with incomes of less than \$10,000 a year. The choice is between increasing rates of personal income tax in the lower brackets or raising the additional revenues through some form of consumption taxes. At the state level, this latter alternative would mean the increasing of sales taxes already in force. At the Federal level, it would mean the adoption of a general manufacturers' excise tax or a general retail sales tax. As a retailer close to the public, I am aware of how unpopular either of these alternatives would be. But if the money needed is to be raised, the only place it can come from is where the money is.

It is not my purpose here to get into any technical discussion of the intricacies of taxation, but rather to emphasize that it is not enough to talk about what needs to be done to strengthen our educational system; careful thought must also be given to how to pay for it. It is easy to make grandiose projections as to the additional billions of dollars education



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will need in the years ahead. But those who make such projections, including the educators themselves, must also give thought to the hard question of from where the money is coming.

I do not question the acute crisis that is facing education in this country today. I do not question that heroic measures will be needed to meet that crisis, and thus avoid possibly severe damage to our productive capacity and to the cultural resources of future generations. I am acutely aware that the penalties of delay are serious and cumulative, that we are dealing with precious human lives, that the child who is educationally impoverished today cannot be nourished by the better education that may be available sometime in the future.

All I am saying is that we will not get what we wish for merely by wishing. All I am insisting upon is that you who most clearly see the need, you who are making the plans, give thought also to how they are to be paid—and by whom. Don't toss this hot potato to the already harassed politician.

I have confidence in the American people. I am confident that if you, the educators, can hold before the American people some part of the vision of what might be accomplished in this country if all our children could have the educational opportunities now available to some, their good judgment and good sense can be counted on to help find not only the will but also the way to that accomplishment.

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Part III

The National Advisory Council Meeting

Sunday, February 12, 1961, 8:30 a.m.

WAYNE ROOM, STATLER-HILTON HOTEL, DETROIT

Chairman: James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Upper Darby High School, Darby, Pennsylvania

Secretary: Ellsworth Tompkins, Executive Secretary of NASSP

PROGRAM

8:30 a.m.—Opening prayer by *Dr. Galen Jones*, Director of the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education's Study on Economic Education, an NASSP project

8:31 a.m.—Breakfast

9:00 a.m.—Introductions by state—Executive Committee

9:15 a.m.—Introductions of Past Presidents—*James E. Nancarrow*

9:16 a.m.—Introductions of others at head table—*James E. Nancarrow*

9:18 a.m.—Greetings—*Finis Engleman*, Executive Secretary, American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C.

9:23 a.m.—Presentation of awards to state groups—*James E. Nancarrow* and *G. E. Damon*

The following persons were granted award certificates in appreciation for their work in increasing membership in the NASSP in their states 25 per cent or more over last year or having obtained a membership in the NASSP in their states equal to 75 per cent or more of the total number of public secondary schools in their states:

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Joseph J. Devitt, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Augusta

Philip A. Annas, Executive Director, Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, Augusta

Maryland Secondary-School Principals Association

Morris C. Jones, Jr., Principal, Senior-Junior High School, Stevensville

Percy V. Williams, Principal, Central Consolidated High School, Bel Air

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Massachusetts Secondary-School Principals Association

James M. Robertson, Principal, Mary E. Wells High School, Southbridge

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Irvin H. Gordon, Principal, High School, Marlboro
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New York State Association of Secondary-School Principals

William D. Firman, Director of Quality Measurement Project, State Education Department, Albany
T. Walsh McQuillan, 152 Washington Avenue, Albany
Stanley R. Allen, Principal, George W. Hewlett High School, Hewlett

New York City High-School Principals Association

Walter H. Wolfe, Principal, William Cullen Bryant High School, 48-10 31st Avenue, Long Island City 3
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Warren Ruppel, Principal, Baumholder American High School, APO 34, New York, N. Y.

Kenneth A. Erickson, Secondary-Schools Coordinator, Headquarters DEG, APO 164, New York, N. Y.

9:45 a.m.—Presentation

The Philadelphia Suburban Principals Association, through its Executive Committee, presented, as a token of appreciation to Dr. James E. Nancarrow, a beautiful silver tray. The presentation was made by George C. Galphin, Dean of Admissions, Drexel Institute of Technology, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Likewise, the Maryland Secondary-School Principals Association presented Dr. Nancarrow a beautiful suitcase as a token of appreciation. Morris C. Jones, Principal of the Stevensville Senior-Junior High School, Stevensville, Maryland, as President of the Maryland Association presented the gift.

9:50 a.m.—Introduction of candidates for election to the Executive Committee to fill one vacancy in Region 2—Cliff Robinson

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9:55 a.m.—Information on NASSP projects

1. Individual Differences—*B. Frank Brown*
2. Testing Project—*Charles Holt*
3. Convention Evaluation—*Joseph McLain*
4. Social Studies Project—*Delmas Miller*
5. Secondary-School Principalship Study—*Cliff Robinson*
6. Money and Banking Unit—*Galen Jones*
7. Staff Utilization—*J. Lloyd Trump*

10:26 a.m.—Preview of Annual Report—*James E. Nancarrow*

10:36 a.m.—Preview of Amendment Procedure—*James D. Logsdon*

10:42 a.m.—Comments by the NASSP staff—*Walter E. Hess; G. M. Van Pool; Colburn E. Hooton; G. E. Damon*

11:00 a.m.—General Discussion from the floor

11:50 a.m.—Adjournment

Part IV

Annual Business Meeting

Tuesday, February 14, 11:09 a.m.

HALL C AUDITORIUM, COBO HALL, DETROIT

Presiding: James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Upper Darby Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania; President, NASSP

Secretary: Ellsworth Tompkins, Executive Secretary, NASSP

AMENDMENTS TO NASSP CONSTITUTION

The Annual Business Meeting of NASSP was held in Hall C Auditorium, Cobo Hall, Detroit, on Tuesday, February 14, 1961, at 11:09 a.m. President Nancarrow presided. (1) *The first item of business* was the report of Cliff Robinson, Chairman of the Board of Nominators, who moved the election of the following slate of officers and members of the Executive Committee for 1961-62:

For President.....James D. Logsdon, Illinois (Reg. 5)

For 1st Vice-President.....Eugene S. Thomas, Michigan (Reg. 4)

For 2nd Vice-President....Calloway Taulbee, New Mexico (Reg. 6)

For member of the Exec. Com...Robert L. Foose, New Jersey (Reg. 2)

Wilbur Marshall, Florida, seconded the nominations. The Chairman pointed out that three members of the Executive Committee had been previously elected and, therefore, were not to be voted on. They include John M. Sexton, Florida, (Reg. 3); Samuel M. Graves, Massachusetts, (Reg. 1); and G. Mason Hall, Washington, (Reg. 7).

The President then called for nominations from the floor. As none was made, Larney Gump, West Virginia, moved, seconded by Stanley Allen, New York, that the nominations be closed and that the Secretary cast a ballot for the election. The vote of the members on this motion was unanimous. At this point President Nancarrow called the newly elected President to the rostrum to congratulate him, whereupon James D. Logsdon expressed his deep appreciation of the great honor bestowed upon him and promised to serve the Association faithfully and well.

(2) *The second item of business*—James D. Logsdon read amendments to the NASSP Constitution that had been passed by the Executive Committee and published in THE BULLETIN according to procedure specified in the Constitution; he then moved their adoption. The amendments to be voted upon were:

ARTICLE III—Membership

SECTION 2. All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are engaged in (a) secondary-school administration and/or supervision; (b) teaching secondary education upon payment of the annual fee of \$15.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 3. Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by the payment of the annual fee of \$10.00 through the state secretary or representative.

SECTION 4. All other persons interested in secondary education shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$15.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 5. Institutional membership shall be open to all secondary schools and libraries and other educational institutions. The annual dues of \$25.00 shall be paid by the educational institution. If institutional membership is obtained through a state secondary-school principals' association, it shall be \$20.00 per year. The principal of a member school shall be credited with a personal participating membership and shall receive all benefits and privileges pertaining thereto. In addition, the school library shall receive a duplicate copy of all proceedings, bulletins, special reports, and a subscription to STUDENT LIFE. The school may also designate any staff representative who shall receive delegate privileges at the annual conventions of the Association.

Larney Gump (West Virginia) seconded the motion. President Nancarrow then called for discussion and asked speakers to use either of the two microphones that had been placed in each of the aisles. Speakers from these states asked questions or made comments: California, Florida, Ohio, and Iowa. None of the persons spoke against the motion, although questions relating to clarification and adequacy were made. When there was no further discussion, President Nancarrow put the motion to a vote and it was passed without dissent.

(3) *The third item of business* was the President's Annual Report to the membership. Because of time given to other items of business, President Nancarrow suggested that the reading of his Annual Report be omitted.

There being no other business, the Annual Meeting was adjourned at 11:25 a.m.

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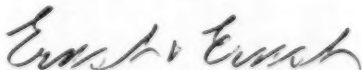
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The Executive Committee,
National Association of Secondary-School Principals,
Washington, D. C.

We have examined the financial statements of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the year ended June 30, 1960. Our examination was made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards, and accordingly included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances except with respect to inventory as explained in the following paragraph.

We were appointed auditors in May, 1960, and therefore were not present to observe procedures followed in determining physical inventory as of June 30, 1959. We did, however, observe procedures followed in taking a physical inventory as of June 30, 1960. Tests of accounting records were made with respect to the June 30, 1959, inventory and the amount stated for such inventory in the accompanying financial statements appears reasonable.

In our opinion, the accompanying statement of financial condition presents fairly the financial position of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at June 30, 1960, and, subject to the limitation of the scope of our examination with respect to inventory as set forth in the preceding paragraph, the statements of income, grants and net worth present fairly the results of its operations for the year then ended in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles.



Ernst & Ernst

Washington, D. C.
August 18, 1960

STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL CONDITION
NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
JUNE 30, 1960

ASSETS	Operating Fund ¹	Scholarship Fund ²	External Fund ³	Total
CURRENT ASSETS				
Cash:				
Demand deposits	\$132,847.77	\$ 17,981.74	\$63,486.20	\$214,315.71
Savings deposits	195,726.26	180,000.00		375,726.26
Cash for deposit	10,000.00			10,000.00
Office cash fund	40.00			40.00
	<u>\$338,614.03</u>	<u>\$197,981.74</u>	<u>\$63,486.20</u>	<u>\$600,081.97</u>
Marketable securities—at cost and accrued interest (aggregate quoted market prices \$103,891.25)	110,018.63			110,018.63
Note receivable	337.50			337.50
Accounts receivable—Note A	\$ 59,999.94	\$ 1,000.00	\$ 366.00	\$ 61,365.94
Less allowance for doubtful accounts	5,000.00			5,000.00
	<u>\$ 54,999.94</u>	<u>\$ 1,000.00</u>	<u>\$ 366.00</u>	<u>\$ 56,365.94</u>
Inventories—at cost (first-in, first-out basis)	93,854.20			93,854.20
Prepaid expenses:				
Retirement insurance	\$ 10,000.00			\$ 10,000.00
Postage	2,300.00			2,300.00
Fire insurance	144.75			144.75
	<u>\$ 12,444.75</u>			<u>\$ 12,444.75</u>
TOTAL CURRENT ASSETS	<u>\$610,269.05</u>	<u>\$198,981.74</u>	<u>\$63,852.20</u>	<u>\$873,102.99</u>

OTHER ASSETS

Deposit with National Education Association
Travel advances

\$ 25,000.00
1,184.90

\$ 25,000.00
1,184.90

TOTAL OTHER ASSETS

\$ 26,184.90

\$ 26,184.90

FURNITURE AND EQUIPMENT

Furniture and equipment—at cost
Less allowance for depreciation

\$ 73,579.90
33,459.67

\$ 73,579.90
33,459.67

TOTAL FURNITURE AND EQUIPMENT

\$ 40,120.23
\$ 420.00

\$ 40,120.23
\$ 420.00

TRADEMARKS—at cost

\$676,994.18

\$63,852.20

\$198,981.74

\$939,828.12

LIABILITIES

CURRENT LIABILITIES

Trade accounts payable
Salaries and wages and amounts withheld from em-
ployees for taxes and insurance
Accrued annual leave

\$ 13,037.32
22,694.35
26,232.50

\$ 17,351.33
22,694.35
26,418.03

\$ 100.00

\$ 4,214.01

\$ 4,399.54

TOTAL CURRENT LIABILITIES

\$ 61,964.17

\$ 66,463.71

RESERVE

Grant available for future activities—Not B

59,452.66

59,452.66

NET WORTH

Fund balances

\$615,030.01

\$198,881.74

Unallocated net worth

\$615,030.01

\$198,881.74

\$ -0-

\$198,881.74

\$ -0-

\$813,911.75

\$63,852.20

\$939,828.12

¹ Sole income sources of the NASSP.

² Funds from outside sources for which the NASSP acts as trustee and are expendable only for scholarships payable to colleges and universities when scholarship winners matriculate.

³ Foundation Grants for special studies and expendable only for the conduct of these studies.

The Constitution

OF THE

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Officially adopted, February 14, 1961

ARTICLE I—Name

The name of this organization shall be the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a Department of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—Purposes

The Association shall advance the cause of secondary education by providing information and leadership in such matters as administration and supervision, by encouraging research, by promoting high professional standards, by focusing attention on national educational problems, and shall join with other professional organizations in the solution of problems of education at the national level.

ARTICLE III—Membership

SECTION. 1. The membership of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of four classes: active, associate, institutional, and life.

SECTION 2. All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are engaged in (a) secondary-school administration and/or supervision; (b) teaching secondary education upon payment of the annual fee of \$15.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 3. Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by the payment of the annual fee of \$10.00 through the state secretary or representative.

SECTION 4. All other persons interested in secondary education shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$15.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 5. Institutional membership shall be open to all secondary schools and libraries and other educational institutions. The annual dues of \$25.00 shall be paid by the educational institution. If institutional membership is obtained through a state secondary-school principals' association, it shall be \$20.00 per year. The principal of a member school shall be credited with a personal participating membership and shall

receive all benefits and privileges pertaining thereto. In addition, the school library shall receive a duplicate copy of all proceedings, bulletins, special reports, and a subscription to *STUDENT LIFE*. The school may also designate any staff representative who shall receive delegate privileges at the annual conventions of the Association.

SECTION 6. Any individual eligible to active or associate membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall have life membership upon payment of the life membership fee of \$150.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 7. Only active members holding full time and active administrative positions in secondary education in schools or state departments of education shall have the privilege of holding office.

SECTION 8. The Executive Committee shall have power to pass upon the qualifications of all applicants for membership.

ARTICLE IV—Officers

SECTION 1. The elective officers of the Association shall be a President, a First Vice President, and a Second Vice President.

SECTION 2. The President and Vice Presidents shall have held office as members of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 3. The President and Vice Presidents shall hold office for a period of one year, or until a successor has been duly elected and properly qualified, and shall not be eligible for re-election to the same office.

SECTION 4. The Executive Committee shall consist of the officers and four other members each elected for a term of four years. This Committee shall be composed of qualified active members elected from each of the following seven regions:

REGION 1—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island;

REGION 2—New York, New York City, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Pennsylvania;

REGION 3—Kentucky, Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas;

REGION 4—Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wyoming;

REGION 5—West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska;

REGION 6—Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado;

REGION 7—Montana, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, California, Utah, Nevada, Alaska, and Hawaii.

In the event of a vacancy in the membership of the Executive Committee or in the offices of the Association such vacancy or vacancies shall

be filled at the next annual election according to the regular election procedure, with priority given the senior members of the Executive Committee. All officers or members of the Executive Committee who were elected to office after the person vacating office was first elected, shall move ahead one year for each vacancy. The newly elected member shall have a term of three years and shall take precedence over the member normally elected to a four-year term. If more than one vacancy occurs in any one year, the same procedure shall apply.

SECTION 5. An officer or member of the Executive Committee shall remain eligible according to Article III, Section 7, and reside in the region he was elected to represent to continue in office beyond the current year.

SECTION 6. The Executive Secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee; his duties and compensation shall be determined by the Executive Committee. The Associate and Assistant Secretaries shall be elected by the Executive Committee upon recommendation by the Executive Secretary; their duties and compensation shall be determined by the Executive Committee.

SECTION 7. The Executive Committee shall: (a) assist the President in arranging for an annual convention and in other matters where his decision will affect the policy and welfare of the Association; (b) appoint such commissions, committees, and consultants to carry on the business of the Association and shall define their duties and determine length of office of such appointment; (c) shall review and evaluate the work of the various committees and keep the Association informed of such reviews and evaluations; (d) prepare an annual budget and render a report to the Association; (e) interpret the provisions of the Constitution in case of doubt relative to its provisions; (f) shall review from time to time the provisions of the Constitution and appoint committees when deemed necessary to recommend changes; (g) shall perform, subject to review by the National Advisory Council and approval by the National Association, such other duties as may be necessary for the efficient functioning and administration of the Association.

SECTION 8. Each state association shall elect or select a State Coordinator who shall represent both the state association and the national organization. When state associations do not provide such an officer, the Executive Committee of the National Association shall appoint a State Coordinator. At the time of the selection of the Coordinator, the state association shall appoint an alternate State Coordinator to serve in the absence of the Coordinator. The names of the Coordinator and his alternate shall be submitted to the Executive Secretary of the National Association at least sixty days prior to the national convention. Each State Coordinator shall: (a) encourage membership in both State and National Associations; (b) interpret and explain the work and various projects of the National Association to his state association; (c) encourage individual participation in the professional work of the State and National Associa-

tions; (d) recommend key people in his area for committee assignment by the Executive Committee; and (e) keep the Executive Committee informed concerning problems and projects of his State Association.

ARTICLE V—National Advisory Council

SECTION 1. There shall be a National Advisory Council whose membership shall consist of the following: (a) the three officers, namely the President, Secretary, and State Coordinator, from each affiliated State Association; (b) all members of the Executive Committee; and (c) all active past Presidents of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals currently in positions of secondary-school administration.

SECTION 2. The National Advisory Council shall meet annually at the time of the annual meeting of the National Association. Such meeting shall be for one or two sessions for the purpose of (a) receiving reports from the Executive Committee, and (b) discussion of problems and concerns of state associations and the National Association.

SECTION 3. The President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall be the presiding officer of the National Advisory Council. The Executive Secretary shall act as Secretary of the National Advisory Council.

SECTION 4. The National Advisory Council shall: (a) advise the Executive Committee concerning activities, projects, and proposals for the National Association; (b) stimulate the study of problems and issues in secondary education; (c) suggest, coordinate, and report activities and experiments of the state associations; (d) serve as a discussion group for problems affecting the National and State Associations; and (e) consider ways and means of unifying and co-ordinating efforts and work of the leading forces in secondary education.

ARTICLE VI—Nominations and Elections

SECTION 1. The State Coordinators shall constitute a Board of Nominators for the elective officers of the Association. If a nomination is made by a state, the Coordinator shall send to the Executive Secretary of the Association, not less than sixty days in advance of the annual meeting, the name of such nomination for any elective office. Nominations shall not be made after that date. The Coordinators shall obtain the endorsement of the state association for the name submitted. The Coordinator shall send a supporting statement and endorsement for each of his nominations in accordance with the qualifications as listed in Article VI, Section 3. The Executive Secretary shall then compile a list of such nominations with their qualifications as set forth on a prescribed form and, together with a list of offices to be filled, shall submit the same to each State Coordinator within a thirty-day period prior to the national convention, at which time the election is to take place.

SECTION 2. The State Coordinators shall meet as a Board of Nominators at a regularly scheduled meeting at the time of the annual convention. An official report of the nominations with supporting statements and endorsements shall be presented by the chairman of the Board of Nominators, who shall previously have been appointed by the President from the present or past membership of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 3. The Board of Nominators in making their final selection shall consider the tabulated returns in relation to: (a) service which the nominee has given his state principals' association and particularly the National Association; (b) qualities and accomplishments which point to successful national leadership; (c) consideration to the standing of the school represented by the nominee; (d) consideration to the frequency of representation from each of the various geographic regions; (e) consideration for seniority in following sequence of office in respect to nominees; and (f) freedom to propose other nominations under justifiable expedient.

SECTION 4. Eighteen Coordinators shall constitute a quorum for the Board of Nominators. In the event of a lack of a quorum, then the vacancies on the Board of Nominators shall be filled by temporary appointments made by the Executive Committee or the President.

SECTION 5. The Chairman of the Board of Nominators shall submit the final list of candidates as prepared by the Board to the members of the Association at the annual business meetings. A written statement in support of each nominee shall be read by the chairman to the members assembled, if requested, and other nominations called for in accordance with parliamentary procedure provided the name of any other person nominated by a State Coordinator is from the list submitted sixty days in advance of the meeting.

SECTION 6. The officers and members of the Executive Committee shall be elected by the Association at the annual business meeting.

ARTICLE VII—Finance

SECTION 1. The President shall appoint annually, subject to the approval of the Executive Committee, two members who shall, with the Executive Secretary, constitute a Board of Finance to act in the capacity of trustees, to have custody of the funds of the Association, to have same properly audited, and to submit annually a report to the Association.

SECTION 2. No part of any income, revenue, and grants of or to the Association shall inure to the material or pecuniary benefit of any member, officer, or any private individual (except that reasonable compensation may be paid for services rendered in connection with one or more of its purposes), and no member, officer, or any private individual shall be entitled to share in the distribution of any of the assets of the Association on its dissolution or liquidation. In the event of such dissolution or liquidation, the assets of the Association, after payments of debts and

obligations, shall be transferred to the National Education Association of the United States for its charitable and educational purposes, provided the said National Education Association is then exempt from Federal income taxes as a charitable and/or educational organization. If the said National Education Association is not then so exempt, the net assets, as aforesaid, shall be transferred to an organization with Federal tax exemption for charitable and educational uses and purposes similar to those of this Association, which exempt organization shall be designated by the final Executive Committee of the Association.

ARTICLE VIII—Meetings

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall hold an annual convention. The regular annual business meetings shall be held at the time and place of the annual convention, unless arranged for otherwise by the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

ARTICLE IX—Amendments

The Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds majority vote of members present and voting at the annual meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Association thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Association.

ARTICLE X—Rules of Order

Roberts' Rules of Order shall govern in all meetings of the Association.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

A Department of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
1961-62

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Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education
Santa Fe, New Mexico

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1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

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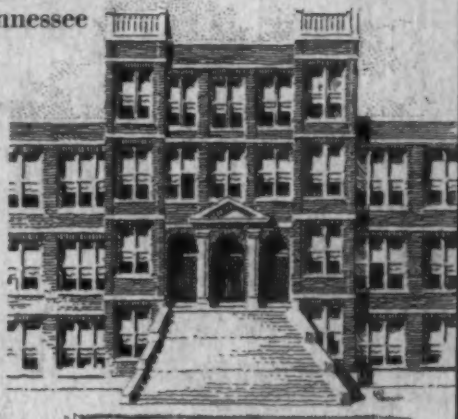
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